THE CORRECT WORD

HOW TO USE IT

JOSEPHINE TURCK BAKER

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THE CORRECT WORD

HOW TO USE IT

A COMPLETE
ALPHABETIC LIST

BY

JOSEPHINE TURCK BAKER

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Correct English: A Complete Grammar; Correct English in the Home; Correct English in the School; Ten Thousand Words: How to Pronounce Them; How Can I Increase My Vocabulary: Art of Conversation; Correct English Drill Book, etc.; and Editor of the Magazine CORRECT ENGLISH: How to Use It

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THE CORRECT WORD

COMPLETE ALPHABETIC LIST

A.

A and An.

The following are the rules for the use of *a* and *an* before a vowel, a consonant, and the aspirate *h: a* is used before a consonant sound; *an*, before a vowel sound; as, "*a* boy;" "*an* eye;" when a vowel has a consonant sound, as in the word *eulogy, a,* and not *an,* is required. (Note that *eu* is equivalent to yioo.)

In the case of words beginning with *h, an* is always required when *h* is silent; as, "*an* heir;" when *h* is aspirated, *a* is required, unless the accent is on the second syllable, when *an* is used; as, "*a* history;" "*an* historian." Some speakers prefer to use *a* even when the accent is on the second syllable; in consequence, both *a* and *an* are recorded as used before *h;* that is, when the accent is on the second syllable.

Able.

See *Ible* (suffix).

A. B. or B. A.; A. M. or M. A.

A. B. and *B. A.* are interchangeably used of the title *Bachelor of Arts; A. M.* and *M. A.,* of the title *Master of Arts.*

A. M. and P. M.; a. m. and p. m.

A. M., the abbreviation of *ante meridian,* and *P. M.,* of *post meridian,* are written with either

capital or small letters, although capitals are preferred by many.

Above.

The use of *above* as an adjective in such constructions as, "the *above* address," is censured by some authorities; but it conforms to the business employment of the language. Careful speakers prefer such constructions as, "The address given *above;*" or "The *above* mentioned address," for the reason that *above* can then be properly construed as an adverb.

Above Any.

The use of *above any* for *more than any* is incorrect. Instead of saying, "I prize this book *above any other* that I have," say, "I prize this book *more than any other* that I have."

Absolutely.

Absolutely is superfluous in such constructions as, "It is *absolutely* correct." This word, when used occasionally, adds emphasis to a statement, but its too frequent use should be avoided.

Accede and Concede.

Accede is specifically used in the sense of *to yield;* as, *"to accede* to one's request;" *Concede* is used in the sense of *to admit as true, to grant privileges;* thus: in nice usage, we *accede* to one's terms, or one's requests, and *concede* to the truth of a statement; to a franchise.

Accept and Accept Of.

Of is always superfluous; thus: "We *accept* his hospitality" (not *of* his hospitality).

Accord.

As an intransitive verb, *accord* means to *agree*

or *suit;* as, "My views *accord* with yours." As a transitive verb, *accord* in one of its uses means to *bestow;* and, as it carries with it a sense of much condescension, it should not be used merely in the sense of *to grant* or *to give.* A nice discrimination in the selection of these words, restricts *accord,* in its transitive sense, to mean *to bestow* a *great favor* or *to recognize a high degree of merit; grant, to confer a favor,* or a privilege; and *give, to put into another's possession, something* for which there is or is not a compensation; thus: "They *accorded* him high praise" (honor, etc.); "They *granted* him many favors" (or privileges); "They *gave* him the *money*" (or the privilege). (As *privilege* is also used in the sense of a *special advantage,* as well as that of a *favor,* it is often correctly used with the word *give* as well as with *grant.*)

Acknowledgment.

The spelling *acknowledgment* is preferable to *acknowledgement.*

Adapted To, For, From.

Adapted to is correct when the reference is to the conformity of the person or thing to the situation in question; as, "He *adapts* himself *to* the circumstances;" "The mind *adapts* itself *to* a difficult problem as the eye *adapts* itself to darkness."

Adapted for is correct when the reference is to the suitability of the person or thing in question to something; as, "He is not *adapted for* that kind of work."

Adapted from is correct when the reference is to the changing of the form or character to accord with something; as, "The play is *adapted from* the French.

Admit and Admit Of.

Both *admit* and *admit of* are correct, but they have variant meanings. Without *of, admit* means to *afford an entrance;* with *of,* to *afford a discussion;* thus: "The tickets will *admit* you to the theatre;" "The question does not *admit of* argument."

Adverb or Adjective After Verbs of Inaction.

Both *a few* and *few* are correct, but they have variant meanings; thus: *a few* means *a small number; few, barely any.*

Affect and Effect.

Affect means *to influence; effect, to accomplish;* as, "He was not *affected* by the news;" "He has *effected* a great change in the business management of the company."

Afraid.

The adjective *afraid* should not be used for the verb *fear;* thus: we say, "I am *afraid* of fire," but "I *fear* I cannot go," not "I am *afraid* I cannot go."

After Having.

After is superfluous in the sentence, "*After having* seen him, I returned home."

After, Afterward and Afterwards.

After, afterward, and *afterwards,* meaning *later in time,* are interchangeable in meaning. We say with equal propriety: "He came three hours *after,* or *afterward* or *afterwards.*

Aggravating.

Aggravating should not be used for *irritating,* as in the sentence, "His manners are very *irritating.*" *Aggravating* means *to make more grave or heavy; to intensify;* as, "His sickness

was *aggravated* by the mental suffering under which he labored."

Ago and Since.

Since is preferable to *ago* when referring to events that are recent; *ago* is preferable to *since* when referring to events that are not recent; as, "a few days *since,*" but "a year *ago.*"

Agreeably With.

The adverb *agreeably,* and not the adjective *agreeable,* is required in such constructions as, "*Agreeably with* your request, we send," etc., because it is the verb that is modified.

Note, too, that the preposition *with* seems more closely to express the meaning than does *to, agreeably with* meaning *conformably with.*

Ain't.

Ain't should never be used for *isn't.* Even as a contraction of *am not* it is censured by many critics, the form *I'm not* being universally preferred. "Am I not?" is required in interrogative sentences.

See *Contractions.*

All and Any.

All is required after a superlative; *any* followed by *other,* is required after a comparative; thus: we say, "This is the *finest* of *all;*" "This is *finer* than *any* other." *All* is required in order that the thing compared may be included in its class; *any* followed by *other* is required in the comparative form in order that the thing compared may be excluded from its class. Such constructions, however, as, "This is finer than any *that I have ever seen,*" may be sanctioned on the ground that the clause "that I have ever

seen'' sufficiently excludes the thing under consideration from the class to which it belongs, the meaning being that which I now see is finer than any *that I have previously seen.* Rule.—When a comparative is followed by *than,* the thing compared must always be excluded from the class of things with which it is compared, by the use of *other* or *some such word or words.*

Further correct examples are: ''There is no *other* place like New York'' (not *no place*). ''There is no other place so beautiful as this'' (not *no place*).

In some comparisons, *else* is required instead of *other;* thus: ''No one *else* is so kind as he;'' ''Nothing *else* is so desirable as this.'' ''Nothing *else* ages like laziness.''

When *but* is used, *else* must be omitted; thus: ''It is no one *but him;*'' ''It is no one *else than* he.''

All Of.

Of is not required in such constructions as ''*all of* our friends,'' ''*all* our friends'' fully expressing the meaning.

All Ready and Already.

All ready means *quite prepared;* as, ''I am *all ready* to go.'' *Already* means *by this or that time; previously to,* or *at some specified time,* or *the time present, thus early; even then,* or *even now;* as, ''He has *already* performed the task.''

All Right and Alright.

All right is correctly written only as two words.

All-Round Man or An All-Around Man.

''An all-round man'' is the correct form.

All These and All of Them.

The best literary usage rejects *of,* preferring *all these.* In the expression "all of them," *of* cannot be omitted unless the construction is rearranged, as, "I have them all," instead of "I have all of them." *Of* in this sense means *from, out of;* and, as such expressions as "all of them," "both of them," do not make sense, they have been censured by many critics. On the other hand, they are recorded as idiomatic, and for this reason they will have the sanction of those who have a preference for idiomatic forms.

Allow and Permit.

Allow means merely *the absence of an attempt to hinder; permit* denotes *a formal* or *implied assent; to grant leave to by express consent* or *authorization;* as, "I do not *allow* my children to eat candy;" "I shall not *permit* you to go."

Allude.

Allude is incorrectly used in the sense of *speak of,* or *mention. Allude* means to refer *delicately, indirectly,* or *incidentally,* sometimes, as if in play; thus: we say, "He *alluded* to his visit, and implied that he would be pleased to call again." Such expressions as, "He *alluded* at great length to the injuries that he had received," are incorrect.

Almost.

Careless speakers sometimes err in saying *most* for *almost,* as, for example, "I have read *most* all the books in the library," for "*almost* all."

Alternative.

Other is superfluous in such constructions as, "There is no *other alternative.*" Again, *alternative* is used only of two things; in consequence, such expressions as, "There are *three alternatives,*" are incorrect.

Although, Though and While.

Although and *though,* meaning *in spite of the fact that,* are interchangeably used; as, "I shall go *although* (or *though*) I am hardly able to do so."

Amid and Amidst.

Amidst is preferred to *amid,* except in poetry, when the latter is frequently employed.

Among and Amongst.

Amongst is a late form of *among,* but is less used. As a rule, the words are interchangeable; but when used strictly of place, *amongst* often implies dispersion or motion; as, "He is *among* the crowd;" "They were walking *amongst* the trees."

Among and Between.

Among is distributive, and may apply to any number more than two; *between* is used of only two persons or things; as, "They discussed this *among* themselves;" "This is *between* us two."

Among One Another.

"*Among* one another" is censured by critics, "*with* one another," or "among themselves" being suggested as preferable.

Among and In.

The words *among* and *in* are interchangeable when used in the sense of *in the midst* or *in association with;* as, "He is *among* the crowd, or

"He is *in* the crowd." When mere inclusion is to be expresssed, *in* is required; as, "He is somewhere *in* the crowd."

And Before Also, Therefore, and Consequently.

And is required before *also,* so, *hence consequently,* in such constructions, as, "You may bring the ink *and also* the letter;" "I was ill *and so* could not come;" "I have finished the study of English, *and, therefore,* I shall begin the study of French;" "I have been ill, *and, consequently,* have been unable to write to you."

When the connection in thought is sufficiently remote as to require the semicolon, *and* is omitted. In literary usage, *and so* or *so* preceded by a semicolon is somewhat weak, and should be sparingly or never used.

And Which.

And which is incorrect in the sentence, "The latest book on this subject, *and which* is by far the most interesting," etc., for the reason that a subordinate clause is connected with a principal clause by a co-ordinate conjunction. *And which* is correct in the sentence, "The latest book on this subject, *which* is by far the most interesting, *and which,*" etc. This is correct, for the reason that the co-ordinate conjunction *and* connects clauses of equal importance. Rule.—Co-ordinate conjunctions must connect like clauses.

Angry At and Angry With.

"Angry *at*" is used when expressing anger for an animal or an inanimate object; "Angry *with,*" for a human being; as, "He is *angry at* his dog;" "He is *angry with* his brother."

Annual and Yearly.

Annual and yearly are interchangeable in meaning; as, "His *annual* (or *yearly*) income is two thousand dollars;" "This is a *yearly* (or *annual*) plant."

Answer and Reply.

An *answer* is a response or rejoinder,—spoken or written to a question (expressed or implied), request, appeal, prayer, call, petition, demand, challenge, objection, argument, address, letter, or to anything said or written. A *reply* is a response, written or spoken, in return for something that seems to call for it, as to give the information sought in a question, or to defend oneself or some one else against an attack. The following slight distinction is made between the uses of these words: An *answer* is a response to a question or a charge, a *reply* is a response to an assertion; the latter implies more thought and intelligence than the former.

Antecedent of the Relative Pronoun.

See *Concord of Verb with Antecedent of Relative Pronoun.*

Anticipate and Expect.

Anticipate is preferable to *expect,* when an event is looked forward to with pleasure; *expect* implies merely belief that something will occur.

Anybody Else's.

The phrases *anybody else, somebody else, nobody else,* etc., have a unitary meaning, as if one word, and properly take a possessive case (with the suffix at the end of the phrase): as,

"This is *somebody else's* hat;" "*Nobody else's* children act so."—Century Dictionary.

Any One . . . Is.

Any one, anybody, each, any one, everybody, either, neither, one, some one, somebody, should be followed by singular pronouns, or verbs.

Any one, anybody, each, every one, everybody, either, neither, nobody, some one, somebody, may be followed by *he* or *his. One* should be followed, by *one* or one's.

"*Any one* of these patterns *is* suitable." "*Every one* of the ladies *is* here." "*Each one* of the soldiers *has* a new uniform." *If any one wishes* to make a suggestion, I wish *he* (or she, or he or she) would make it." "*Anybody* in *his* senses would have done it." "*One* dislikes to be told of *one's* errors."

(Note that *any one, every one,* and *some one,* are written as two words.)

Any Place.

Place is a noun, and so should not be used as an indirect object without a preposition. *Place* should be used with a preposition; as, "I saw it *in some place,*" or "I can't find it *in any place.*" One should say, "I am going *to some place,*" or "I am going *somewhere;*" "I can't find it *in any place,*" or "I can't find it *anywhere.*"

Anyways and Anywise.

Anyways is an incorrect form of the colloquial expression *anyway.*

Anyway is properly written as two words when meaning *in any way* or *in any manner.* Its use in the sense of *in any event,* is colloquial, but when so employed it should be written as one word; thus: "*Anyway* (or *anyhow*) I am going."

This use is, of course, avoided in dignified conversation or in written diction.

Anywise, meaning *in any wise,* is formed like such words as *nowise, likewise.* When written as one word, it is not preceded by the preposition *in;* otherwise it is; as, "If you can *anywise* effect this sale, do so," or "If you can *in any wise* effect this sale, do so." (While *anyway,* meaning *in any way,* is recorded as being properly written only as two words, *anywise* is not so recorded.)

Apostrophe.

The apostrophe is used to indicate the omission of letters or figures.

"He *doesn't*" (instead of *does not*). *I'm* (instead of *I am*). *It's* (instead of *it is*), or *6's* and *7's* (instead of *sixes* and *sevens*).

King's, queen's, instead of the old form *kingis, queenis,* to denote possession.

There is a general tendency to omit the apostrophe in the titles employed by business firms and corporations; thus: "The Studebaker *Bros.* Manufacturing Company," instead of "The Studebaker *Bros.*' Manufacturing Company."

'10 (instead of *1910*).

Dot your *i's.*

Note.—For exposition of the use of the apostrophe with the letter *s* to indicate possession, see POSSESSIVES.

Appearance Sake, Appearance's Sake, Appearance' Sake.

It is permissible to omit both the apostrophe and the letter *s* in words that modify the noun *sake;* as, "for *appearance* sake;" "for *fashion* sake;" "for *heaven* sake;" "for *conscience* sake."

Appertain and Pertain.

Appertain and *pertain* are interchangeably used, and are equally correct.

Appreciate.

Note.—*Appreciate,* opposed to *depreciate,* means *to increase in value;* hence, such expressions as, "The property *appreciates* from year to year," although censured by some critics, are correct.

Appreciate Highly.

Highly is superfluous in such constructions as, "We *appreciate* your services *highly,*" for the reason that *appreciate* means *to place a sufficiently high estimate on.*

Apprehend and Comprehend.

Apprehend means to *perceive;* as, "I *apprehend* danger." *Comprehend* means to *understand;* as, "I *comprehend* your meaning."

Approached.

Approached should not be used in the sense of *petitioned* or *addressed;* as, "He *approached* the members of the church for a longer vacation," etc., instead of "He *petitioned,*" etc. It is correctly used when the meaning is "to come near" by indirect or covert intimation, suggestion, or question; thus: we say, "I *approached* him on this subject (felt my way), but as he did not encourage the suggestion, I said nothing further about it."

Apt.

Apt implies natural fitness or tendency; as, "John is an *apt* pupil." *Likely* refers to a contingent event regarded as very probable; as, "It is *likely* to rain to-day." *Liable* is used of

a possible event regarded as disastrous; as, "He is *liable* to die at any moment."

Around and Round.

Around and *round* are interchangeably used.

Arrive Safe.

The adjective *safe* is required, for the reason that reference is made to the condition of the subject, and not to the action of the verb. There is a growing tendency, however, to construe the verb as being modified and to use the adverb *safely*.

Arrive At.

Arrived at is correct, for the reason that the city is regarded, for the time being, as a mere point.

ARTICLE (THE, A, AN), REPETITION OF.*

The following are the rules that govern the repetition of the article:

Rule 1. When two or more nouns following each other denote the same person or thing, the article is not repeated; but when the nouns denote different persons or things, the article must be repeated before each noun, and a plural verb must be used.

NOUNS THAT DENOTE THE SAME PERSON.

The editor and publisher of the magazine *is* a very able man.

NOUNS THAT DENOTE DIFFERENT PERSONS.

The editor and *the* publisher of the magazine *are* very able men.

Rule 2. When two or more nouns following each other do not denote the same thing, but are so closely associated in thought that they

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may be considered as forming a whole, the article is placed before the first noun only, and a singular verb should be used.

The pen and ink *is* here.

He has *a* new horse and buggy.

If, however, for the sake of emphasis, the article is repeated before each noun, then a plural verb must be used. Thus, "*The* pen and *the* ink *are* both here;" "*the* bread and *the* butter *are* both on the table," etc.

Rule 3. When two or more nouns are compared, the article is not repeated if the nouns denote the same person or thing; but if the nouns denote different persons or things, the article must be repeated before each noun.

He is a better writer than the former editor. (Nouns do not denote the same person.) He is a better writer than speaker. (Nouns denote the same person.)

The repetition of the article is sometimes sanctioned for the sake of emphasis; as: "He went his way *a* sadder and *a* wiser man."

Rule 4. When a singular noun is modified by several adjectives, only one article must be used if the noun denotes but one object; but if the noun denotes more than one object, the article must be repeated before each noun.

ONE OBJECT.

A black and white dress.
A red, white, and blue flag.
The yellow and white cottage *is* the one I mean.

TWO OR MORE OBJECTS.

A black and *a* white dress.
A red, *a* white, and *a* blue flag.

The black and *the* white cottage *are* both for rent.

Rule 5. When a plural noun is modified by two or more adjectives, only one article must be used, and that is placed before the first adjective only.

6. *The first* and *second* chapters of the book are very interesting.

Note.—If the noun is singular, then Rule 4 is applicable. Thus, "The first and *the* second chapter are very interesting."

Article The, Special Uses of.

The article *the* is placed before *reverend* and *honorable* when reference is made to persons bearing these titles; thus: "The Reverend;" "The Honorable."

As.

As should not be used for *that* in such constructions as, "I do not know *that* I do."

As and Like.

As is used to compare action or existence; *like,* to compare things.

As is followed by a noun or a pronoun (expressed or understood) and a verb (expressed or understood); as, "He is such a man *as* his father (was)."

Like is followed by a noun or a pronoun with a preposition understood; as, "He is *like* (unto) me."

Thus: one properly says, "He *acts* (*sings, speaks,* etc.) *as* you do" or "He *acts* (*sings, speaks*) *like* you," but not "He *acts* (*sings, speaks,* etc.) *like* you do."

As Far As; As Soon As; As Long As.*

As far as, as soon as, as long as are usually interchangeable with *so far as, as soon as, so long as;* but if the extent or degree usually implied in these phrases is to be emphasized, however slightly, *so* is used preferably to *as.* Thus:

"We said of conduct that it is the simplest thing in the world *as far as* knowledge is concerned, but the hardest thing in the world *so far as* doing it is concerned."

"Therefore, we fulfill the law of our being *so far as* our being is æsthetic and intellective, as well as *so for as* it is moral."

In the first sentence *as far as* is equivalent in meaning to the phrase "with respect to" or "in relation to;" in the second sentence, there is a distinct reference to and limitation of extent conveyed in the phrase *so far as.* In brief, when in place of the phrase *as far as* the phrases *with respect to* or *in relation to* can be substituted, *as far as* is correctly used; but when the extent or degree is to be emphasized, *so far as* is correctly used.

"*In* so far as" is often used in the sense of *so far as,* but in is superfluous in this connection. Thus, in the sentence, "*In* so far as I am concerned you need not hesitate to refuse to go," *in* is redundant.

I shall stay *as long as* I can.

So long as a person minds his own affairs, he will have no trouble with his neighbors.

In sentences like the foregoing, introduced by *so far as, so long as, so soon as, as* is often used instead of *so,* even by good speakers; but,

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as has been indicated, *so* is preferable when the extent or degree implied is to be emphasized.

As Follows.

As follows may precede a plural enumeration, although some writers prefer to use *as follow* where there is more than one particular cited, as: "The explanation is *as follows;*" "The parts of speech are as *follow.*"

As Followed by As.

As is followed by *as* in the comparison of equals; *so* in the comparison of unequals; as, "He is *as* tall *as* I;" "He is not *so* tall *as* I."

COMPARISON OF EQUALS (AS FOLLOWS AS).

"You may depend upon it, there are *as* good hearts to serve men in palaces *as* in cottages."

Had I read *as* much *as* others I might have been *as* ignorant.—*Hobbs.*

COMPARISON OF UNEQUALS (SO FOLLOWS NOT).

"Success in life is a matter *not so* much of talent or opportunity *as* of concentration and perseverance."

There is *nothing so* strong or safe in any emergency of life *as* simple truth.—*Dickens.*

As If and As Though.

See *If* and *Though.*

As If It Was.

Were, and not *was,* is required after *as if,* for the reason that the supposition is not known; thus: "It looks *as if it were* all right," not "it looks *as if it was* all right."

As It May.

In the sentence, "Be that *as it may,*" *may,*

and not *will,* is the required form, *may* expressing possibility, *will,* actual futurity.

As to Whether.

This construction is correct in such sentences as, "They were discussing the point *as to whether* his doings were justifiable or not."

At.

The presence of *at* improves such constructions as "He is *at* home," instead of "He is home."

At and To.

At and *to* are superfluous in such sentences as, "Where is he?" and "Where has he gone?" hence, their use should be avoided.

At All.

At all is superfluous in such sentences as, "There is no use in your going;" "I do not know him."

At Best.

"*At best*" is an incorrect form for "at *the* best."

At and In.

At is always required when the place is thought of as a mere point, whether a large or a small town; after the verb *live, at* must be used of small towns because the place is regarded for the time being, as a mere point. *In* is used of large towns after the same verb; as "He lives *at* Yonkers," "He lives *in* New York." *At* is used of large towns as well as of small in such construction as the following: "He lives abroad for the reason that all his business interests centre *at* London." In other words,

the context shows that London, for the time being, is thought of merely as a geographical point or center.

At Length.

At length is correctly used when continuance is expressed; *at last,* when finality is attained; thus, we say, "*At length* he began to recover;" "*At last* he died."

Attenuate and Extenuate.

Attenuate means *to lessen; to diminish or reduce in force, effect or value; extenuate* means *to make less blamable in estimation.*

(Literal sense) "This uninterrupted motion must *attenuate* and wear away the hardest rocks." (Figurative sense) "We may reject and reject until we *attenuate* history into sapless meagreness."

"I have not desire to *extenuate* guilt nor to break down the distinction between virtue and vice."

At Rest or To Rest.

A body is laid *at rest,* not *to rest, at* expressing in this sense the notion of state or condition.

Authoress.

The terms "author*ess,*" "doctr*ess,*" editr*ess,*" "poet*ess,*" "lecture*ss,*" are no longer used, *author, doctor,* etc., being correct for both sexes.

Act*ress,* not *actor,* however, is the required form for the feminine gender.

Avocation.

Avocation should not be used for *vocation. Vocation* is one's employment; *avocation,* one's diversion from that employment.

Awful.

Awful means inspiring with awe; *causing fear or horror; filling with dread or reverence; terrible, appalling;* as: "the *awful* mysteries of the world unseen;" "an *awful* disaster;" "the *awful* approach of death," "an *awful* shock."

Incorrect uses of this word are found in colloquial speech; as, "an *awful* warm day;" "an *awful* dinner."

Aye and Ay.

Aye and *ay,* pronounced *a* as in *ate,* are to be distinguished from *aye,* pronounced *i* as in *ice,* and meaning *yes.*

B.

Backward and Backwards.

These terms are used interchangeably when expressing direction towards the back or the rear, the matter of selection being merely a question of euphony. Standard suggests the following: "The two forms may be conveniently used, in accordance with their origin etymologically, to distinguished the adjective and the adverb; as, 'a *backward* pupil;' 'He walked *backwards;*' also, to distinguish movement back from, but with the face toward a person, from mere direction of movement rearward. These ideas are usually expressed confusedly, except as *back* is used instead of *backward* or *backwards* to express the latter."

Bad and Badly.

Badly in such construction as, "I feel *badly,*" "You look *badly,*" is incorrect, the adjective, and not the adverb, being required after the verbs of the senses,—*feel, look, taste, smell,*

sound, etc. when no action is expressed; as: "I feel *bad,*" "You look *bad,*" etc.

The use of *bad* in the same sense of *ill* is, strictly speaking, not correct; but it is in accordance with the conversational employment of the language. The addition of *ly* does not improve the construction, for the employment of the adverb *badly* after an inactive verb like *feel* or *look* is ungrammatical, it being at variance with the rule,—The adjective is required after a verb of inaction when the reference is to the condition or state of the subject. Compare with "I feel *glad;*" "You look *sad.*"

Badly and Very Much.

Badly in the sense of *very much,* or *greatly,* is a loose employment of the word; and, while it is frequently used in colloquial speech, it is not in accordance with the best usage of the language. Instead of saying, "I need it *badly,*" say, "I need it *very much.*"

Bad Grammar.

Grammar presupposes an observance of its rules; hence, *bad grammar* is an incorrect expression. *Grammatical* or *ungrammatical error,* however, is correct. Instead of saying, "He uses *bad grammar,*" say, "He uses *incorrect English.*" Some authorities endorse the use of the expression "*bad* grammar," or "*good* grammar," but, as indicated, in strict usage, the expressions should be regarded as incorrect.

Balance.

The use of *balance* in the sense of *remainder* or *rest* is incorrect in such constructions as, "The *balance* of the evening was spent in dancing." *Balance* is an accountant's term, and

properly is used of that which must be added to the less or subtracted from the greater of two amounts, as receipts or expenses, in order to make them equal; and as it does not properly denote what is left after a part has been taken away, as indicated, it should not be used in the sense of *remainder* or *rest.*

Bathos and Pathos.

Bathos means *a ridiculous descent from the sublime* to the commonplace. *Pathos* means *feeling,*—the *power that awakens or moves feeling.*

Be (Verb).

See *To be.*

Be Back.

Back denotes direction towards the starting point; but *be back* has no such significance. Instead of saying "I'll *be back* in a minute," say "I'll *come back* in a minute."

Been To.

Been to is colloquial; *been in* or *been at* being regarded as correct, according as the case may require; thus: "I have *been in* the city;" "I have *been at* church." It is difficult to avoid the use of *been to*, for the reason that *been at* or *in* does not seem wholly to convey the meaning.

Beg.

The use of *beg* in such constructions as, "I *beg* to state," is censured by critics as being (a) an overworked term, and (b) as hardly expressing the truth.

Beg Pardon.

Beg pardon is nicely used when one makes a

breach of etiquette; *excuse me,* when one wishes to leave the table or the room.

Began and Begun.

See *Have, Has and Had.*

Behave.

The adverb *properly* is not necessary in such constructions as, *behave yourself, behave* being used absolutely to mean to *conduct one's self properly.* The interrogative form, "Will you *behave?*" is censured by some critics, but *behave* may be used absolutely in the interrogative as well as in the declarative form.

Being.

The use of *being* in such constructions as "is *being* built," has been censured by some critics, but its employment, as shown by English scholars, is strictly correct.

Beside.

Beside means *at one's side;* as, "He sat *beside* her;" *besides* means *in addition to;* hence, *besides* is the required form in such sentences as, "There was no one at home *besides* me.

Between.

Between is a preposition, and so must be followed by the objective case. Instead of saying, "This is *between* you and *I,*" say, "This is *between* you and *me.*" See *For.*

Bound.

The use of *bound* for *determined* or *destined* in such sentences as, "He was *bound* to go," "He was *bound* to fail," is censured; "He was *determined* to go," "He was *destined* to fail," being the correct forms. The use of *bound* in the sense of morally or legally constrained or

compelled, is correct; as, "He is *bound* to pay the debt."

Both.

Both, as an adjective or a pronoun, is properly used of only two persons or things; as a conjunction, it may be used of more than two; as: (pronoun) "*Both* are here" (two persons); (adjective) "I like *both* children" (two persons); (conjunction) "*Both* the parents, the teachers and the pupils are going" (more than two). See *Either.*

Brethren and Brothers.

Brethren indicates the relationship between the members of a religious organization or fraternity. *Brothers* is used of those who are related by birth, and also of the members of a fraternity.

Bright and Brightly.

See *Sun shines bright.*

Bring and Fetch.

See *Fetch*

But Him.

Used as a preposition, in the sense of *except, but* must always be followed by the objective case; as, "There was no one at home but *him* and *me* (not *he* and *I*).

But That and But What.

But that means *except the thing referred to; but what* means *except that which;* as, "I do not know *but that* I shall go." "I have nothing *but what* (*but that which*) you gave me."

See *Doubt that and Doubt but that.*

By and Of.

By and *of* are used somewhat interchangeably in such sentences as, "I know a man *by* the name of Brown," "I know a man *of* the name of Brown." Some critics indicate, however, that one might know a man *of* the name of Brown, but know him *by* the name of Smith.

By and With.

By is used before the agent or doer; *with,* before the instrument or means; as "The boy was accidentally hit *by* his playmate *with* a ball." Again, in the absence of a direct agent, the instrument or means is properly regarded, for the time being, as the agent or doer; as, "The barn was struck *by* lightning;" "The house was heated *by* steam;" "The cooking was done *by gas,*" (by means of).

C.

Call On.

"Call *on*" in the sense of *to make a brief visit* is preferable to "call *upon,*" *upon* being more especially used to express motion from above or from the side.

Came Near.

Came near for *almost* in such sentences as, "We *came near* falling down stairs," is not in accordance with the best usage of the language.

Can and May.

Can denotes *ability; may, permission;* in consequence, the expression, "*Can* I go?" for "*May* I go?" is incorrect. While *may* is required to ask permission, *can* must be used to deny the request; thus: "*May* I go?" "You *cannot* go."

Can but and Can not but.

I *can but,* as in "I *can but* feel," means *can only; can not but,* as in "I *can not but feel,*" means *can not do anything except.* "I *can but* feel" (I can only feel), is not so strong a statement as "I *can not do anything except* feel." A nice discrimination favors *can but* when the assertion is not to be made especially emphatic, and *can not but* when the statement is to be strong.

Cannot and Can not.

Cannot is merely a variant form of *can not.*

Case of Pronouns after the Verb To be.

See *To be.*

Casualty.

Casuality is an incorrect form of *casualty,* meaning a fatal or serious accident, or disaster. *Casualty* (pronounced cazh′yulty, with the accent on the first syllable), in law, means "an event not to be foreseen, or guarded against." It is sometimes misspelled *casuality.*

Chance.

The preposition that is required after the word *chance* depends upon the meaning to be conveyed. One properly says, "A *chance of* success," "A *chance for* a prize," "One *chance in* a thousand."

Character and Reputation.

Character should not be misused for *reputation* in such construction as, "The charges presented against him hurt his *reputation.*"

Chiefest.

According to Century, *chief* is now regarded as not admitting of degrees of comparison,

though formerly *chiefest* was used. Standard endorses the superlative form *chiefest,* meaning of most *importance* or *esteem; foremost.*

Claim and Maintain.

Claim in the sense of *maintain* or *assert* is always correct if used in the sense of asserting with the added idea of assurance that the thing asserted can be maintained. In ordinary uses, as, "I *maintain* that I am right," *maintain* would be preferable unless the speaker wishes to convey the idea that he is making an assertion which can be proved, when "I claim," etc., would be required. (These distinctions are so fine that they should hardly be made, and yet to discriminate in the use of these words may be a tendency in the right direction.)

Climb Up and Climb Down.

Climb indicates *ascension;* in consequence, "climb *down*" is censured. There seems, however, to be no good substitute for "climb *down.*"

Clever.

Clever, in the sense of *good-natured* or *obliging,* is a colloquialism. As carefully employed, the word means *dextrous, talented,* or *capable.*

COLLECTIVE NOUNS.*

A collective noun may be either singular or plural; as, *committee, committees.* When plural, it always requires a plural verb. When singular, it requires a singular verb, unless special reference is made to the individuals represented by the noun, when it requires a plural verb, thus:

*Correct English: A Complete Grammar.

A committee *has* been appointed to draw up the resolutions.

The committee *are* all of the same opinion.

The board *has adjourned.*

The board all *favor* the new project.

The jury *has rendered* a verdict.

The jury *are* all at variance with *one another.*

The class, which *has* just *been graduated, is composed* of ten of the brightest young women in the city.

The life class, who *were* at work in another room, startled by the noise, hastened from *their* seats, and rushed into an adjoining room.

The Treasury Department *has* charge of all matters connected with the collection and the disbursement of the public revenue.

The Erecting Department *have been working* in opposition to *one another* for several weeks, and, in consequence, the work on the building has been greatly delayed.

Our Connellsville Plant *are attending* to this matter, and *they write* that *they* will soon be able to ship the material.

Some authorities would sanction the following:

"Our Connellsville Plant *is attending to* this matter, and *they,*" etc.; but whenever possible, it is better to avoid a shift of number. In other words, in strict usage, both the verb and the pronoun should be of the same number. Thus:

"The syndicate *has decided* to increase its capital."

"The syndicate *have quarreled* among *themselves,* and, in consequence, much trouble has ensued."

Come and Go.

Come means *to arrive at; go* means to *depart.* The verb *come* is correctly used to indicate arrival at a place; *go,* to indicate departure for a place; as, "I will *come* to see you when I *go* to the city." "I am *going* to church on Sunday, and will *come* to see you immediately after the service."

Commence, Begin, Start.

1. *Commence* and *begin* are, in the main, interchangeable in meaning, but the simple Anglo-Saxon *begin* is usually regarded as preferable. *Commence* is far more restrictive in its application than is *begin.* Thus: A tree can *begin* to grow but not *commence* to grow (*Commence* cannot be logically followed by the infinitive.) Again *commence* or *commencement* refers merely to some form of *action,* while *begin* is not so restricted, it being applicable to the action, state, material, extent, etc. Because of the restrictive application of *commence,* and because of the adaptability of *begin* to all ordinary uses, the latter is generally recommended.

Start is interchangeably used with *begin,* when the meaning is to set out; to enter upon an action, course, or pursuit, as a journey or a race; but the context differs slightly. Thus: "We *started* early in the morning;" "We *began* our journey early in the morning."

The use of *start,* as in the sentence, "The business will *start* to-morrow," is colloquial.

Commonly, Generally, Frequently, Usually.

Commonly means *common to all; generally* means that which is done by a large number

or by a single person on many occasions; *frequently,* that which is done at short intervals; *usually,* that which is customarily done, whether by one or many; that which occurs in the ordinary course of events.

Comic, Comical.

In strict usage, *comic* means pertaining to comedy in distinction from tragedy; as, a *comic* play. *Comical* means fitted to excite mirth; as, "a *comical* story;" "a *comical* situation." These words are sometimes interchangeably used in both meanings, but they should be employed only as indicated in the foregoing definition.

Company at Dinner.

"*Company at* dinner," not "*Company for* dinner," is the required form. Many persons err in saying, "We are going to have *company for* dinner," instead of "We are going to have *company at* dinner."

Compare With and Compare To.

Use "compare *with*" when representing the relative merits of the things compared; "compare *to*" when likening one thing to another; thus:

"*Compare* this cloth *with* that, and tell me which you prefer."

"Her voice is not to be *compared with* Patti's."

How can you *compare* her voice *with* his; their voices cannot be *compared with* each other; hers is very inferior to his.

Many poets have *compared women to* April weather.

Christ *compared* the sinner *to* a lost sheep.

Compensation and Remuneration.

Compensation means that which is given or received as an equivalent as for services, debt, loss, etc. *Remuneration* is a compensation for personal services; as, "The pleasure *compensates* for the pain," "He was *remunerated* for his work by an increase in his salary."

Complete and Finished.

Complete means to bring something to a condition or state in which there is nothing new to do; *finished* means to bring something to an end. Thus: one may *finish* a dinner, a speech, and *complete* the building of a house.

Conclude and Decide.

Some authorities indicate that in nice usage, *conclude* means more especially *to arrive at an opinion; decide, to arrive at a determination;* as, "I *concluded* that she had deceived me;" "I *decided* to go at once."

Concord of Subject and Verb.* See page 206 for exposition.

(For further exposition, See Reference Department.)

Number.

When *number* is used to express a unit of some sort, it is a singular noun, and, hence, requires a singular verb; when it is used in the sense of *several,* it is a plural noun, and, hence, requires a plural verb.

SINGULAR.

The *number is limited* to five.
The *number* of cases *grows* less each year.

* CORRECT ENGLISH: A COMPLETE GRAMMAR.

PLURAL.

A *number* of young ladies *were assembled.* (Several young ladies.)

A *number* of cases *have been treated* in this way. (Several cases.)

Half, Part, Remainder, Rest.

When *half, part, remainder, rest,* are used in reference to singular nouns, they are singular, and hence, require singular verbs; when they refer to plural nouns, they are plural, and, hence, require plural verbs; as: "*Half* of the orange is *bad;*" "*Half* of the oranges *are* bad;" "A *part* of the book *is* interesting;" "The greater *part* of those assembled *were invited* to remain;" "The *remainder* (or *rest*) of the evening *was spent* in playing cards;" "The *remainder* (or *rest*) of the amount due *is* to be paid in installments;" "The *remainder* (or *rest*) of the books *were* sold at one dollar each;" "The *rest* of the passengers *were uninjured.*"

Confess and Admit.

In its chief use, *confess* means *to make an admission of wrongdoing;* and, as it is a stronger word than *admit,* the latter is preferable when used merely to acknowledge the truth of a statement, or to acknowledge a mistake. One *admits* a mistake, *acknowledges* a fault, and *confesses* a sin or a wrong. Instead of saying, "I *confess* that I am entirely ignorant of the facts," one preferably says, "I *admit,*" etc.

Confide In and Confide To.

We *confide in* a person when we have faith or repose confidence in him; we *confide to* a person when we entrust a secret to him.

Constant.

Constant (or *constantly*) is frequently used in the sense of *continual* or *continually,* viz., to express that which recurs at regular intervals; but a nice discrimination in the employment of these words restricts *constant* to express that which is mental or moral; *continual,* to express that which recurs at regular intervals; as "a *constant* friend," "the *continual* beating of the waves." See *Continual.*

Contagious and Infectious.

Contagious means *catching; infectious* is applied to diseases that are not "catching," but that are due to climatic, malarious, or other prevailing conditions.

Contemptible and Contemptuous.

Contemptible means *deserving of contempt; contemptuous* means *disdainful;* as, "His conduct was *contemptible*" (deserving of contempt); "His manner was *contemptuous*" (disdainful; so, "He acted *contemptibly* (deserving of contempt); "She treated him *contemptuously*" (disdainfully).

CONTENTS. See p. 216.

Continual and Continuous.

Continual (or *continually*) is used of an act that is repeatedly renewed; *continuous* or *continuously,* of an act that is unceasing; as, "He was subject to *continual annoyance*" (repeated at close intervals); "He was subject to *continuous* annoyance" (continued without interruption); "He interrupted her *continually* while she was writing so that she could not work *continuously.*"

Contractions.

Contractions, while not permissible in dignified utterance or in formal writing, are in accordance with the conversational employment of the language. The following is the list:

I'm not, you're not, he's not, we're not, they're not, are used in the declarative form, and *isn't he* (*she,* or *it*), *aren't you* (*we, they*) in the interrogative. In the declarative form, "*You're not, he's not,* etc., are preferable to *you aren't, he isn't,*" etc. *Am I not* is not contracted, *ain't* being regarded as objectionable for *am I not*, and as a vulgarism for *isn't.* See *ain't.*

"He (she or it) *don't*" for He (*she* or *it*) *doesn't,*" is always incorrect. *I don't, you don't, he doesn't, we don't, you don't, they don't,* are in accordance with the conversational employment of the language.

Mayn't I (or *may I not*) is correct in the interrogative form; *you can't* (or *you can not*) in the declarative form. In this connection note that *may* is used when asking and granting permission, and that *can,* which ordinarily expresses ability, is used in the declarative form when denying permission; thus: "*May* I go?" "No, you *can not.*"

The contractions *shan't* and *won't* are in accordance with the conversational usage of the language.

Shan't you (or *shall* you not) see her again? (Simple Futurity.)

No; I *shan't* (cr *shall* not). (Simple Futurity.)

He *won't* come until next week. (Simple Futurity.)

It *won't matter.* (Simple Futurity.)

Won't she come to see me? (Simple Futurity.)

No; she *won't.* (Simple Futurity.)

Contrast.

To is often improperly used after *contrast.* Instead of saying "contrasted *to* this," one properly says "contrasted *with* this."

Convenient and Commodious.

While *convenient* and *commodious* are largely interchangeable, a nice discrimination in meaning restricts *commodious* to apply to that which affords ample accommodation; as, "The room is *commodious* (affords ample accommodation), and is *convenient* for my purpose" (suitable for the purpose for which it is used).

Corporeal and Corporal.

Corporeal is used more specifically in the sense of *relating* to the body; *corporal,* in the sense of *having* a body; hence, *corporal* is the preferred form in such sentences as, "I do not believe in *corporal* punishment."

Correspond To and With.

Correspond to means *answer* or *conform to;* as, "Does this description *correspond to* your idea of what the place is like?" *Correspond with* means to communicate with by written word; as, "They *correspond with* each other."

Cos.

The plural of *Co.* (abbreviation of *company*) is *Cos.* The possessive singular is *Co's;* the possessive plural is Cos'.

Couple and Two.

Couple means *two united;* thus: "They (husband and wife) are a congenial *couple.*" "She has *two* children (not *a couple* of children).

Creditable and Credible.

Creditable means that which is worthy of credit; *credible,* that which can be believed; as, "His work is highly *creditable;*" "His story is not *credible.*"

Culture and Cultivation.

Standard says: "*Cultivation* is now largely superseded by the term 'culture,' which denotes a higher development of the best qualities of man's mental and spiritual nature, with a special reference to the esthetic faculties and to graces of speech and manner, regarded as the expression of a refined nature. *Culture* in the fullest sense denotes that degree of refinement and development which results from continued cultivation through successive generations."

The term *cultured* has largely supplanted *cultivated* in such cases as *cultured people, cultured classes,* etc.

Cunning.

Cunning, in the sense of *artful, ingenious,* as "a *cunning* thief," is correct. The word should not be used to express that which is *amusing.*

Cupfuls and Teaspoonfuls.

Plurality is indicated by the second syllable in such compounds as, "The receipt calls for three *cupfuls* of flour and three *teaspoonfuls* of baking powder."

Three *cupsful* means three cups full, and *cups full* should be written as two words. Three *cupfuls* means one cup filled three times. Like-

wise, three *teaspoonsful* means three teaspoons full, and *teaspoons full* should be written as two words. Three *teaspoonfuls* means one spoon filled three times.

Curious.

Curious is the sense of *unusual* or *novel,* as, "It is a *curious* fact," has been censured, but the most eminent critics regard it as correctly used in constructions like the foregoing.

Custom and Habit.

Custom is applied to that which is the result of a *voluntary* act; *habit,* to that which has become through custom, *involuntary;* as, "He followed this *custom* (that of rising early, for example) until it became a *habit.*" We speak of the *customs,* not the *habits,* of a particular body of people; as, "While abroad, he studied the *customs* of the people and found that where individuals were in the *habit* of attending early mass, they were industrious and sober."

Cute.

Cute, in the sense of *smart,* or *clever,* is a colloquialism, and, in consequence, is not in accordance with the best usage of the language.

D.

Daily Journal.

Journal means *daily;* in consequence, such wordings as *daily, weekly,* and *monthly journals,* are incorrect, *daily* being superfluous, and *weekly* and *monthly* not expressing the meaning. One properly says, for example, "A *daily* (or *weekly*) newspaper;" "A *monthly* (or *quarterly*) magazine."

Damage.

Damage should not be used in the sense of *cost* or *charge;* as, "What is the *damage?*" "I'll pay the *damage,*" instead of "What is the *cost?*" "I'll pay the *cost.*" *Damage* is correctly used in the sense of *hurt* or *injury;* as, "No human being can arbitrarily dominate over another without grievous *damage* to his own nature." The plural form *damages,* of which the incorrect use of *damage* is a perversion, is correctly used as a law term, meaning money that is recoverable as amends for a wrong and injury sustained; as, "The plaintiff was awarded merely nominal *damages.*"

Dangerous.

Dangerous is incorrectly used in the sense of "dangerously ill." Instead of saying, "He is worse, but not *dangerous,*" one should say, "He is worse, but not *dangerously ill.*" That which is dangerous is a cause or occasion of danger to other persons or things; as, "The man is *dangerous,*" meaning that he is liable to inflict injury or harm.

Dare and Need.

Dare and *need* (implying necessity or obligation), without the terminal *s,* may be used in the third person, singular number of the present tense, provided that they are not followed by the preposition *to,* used as a part of the infinitive; as, "He *dare* not go;" "*Dare* he go?" "He *need* not go; "*Need* he go?" The use of the preposition *to* is optional in many instances, but, as implied, when used, the presence of the terminal *s* is obligatory; as: "He *dares* to think for himself;" "He *needs* to study."

Daresn't.

As *daresn't* is properly a contraction of *dares not* in the third person, singular number, and as *dare not* is the required form in the second person, singular and plural, "You *daresn't*" is always incorrect.

"I *dare,*" "You *dare,*" "He (or she) *dares*" (or *dare*), is the conjugation of the verb; in consequence, the proper contractions are: "I *daren't,*" "You *daren't,*" "He (or she *daresn't* (or *daren't*)." Again, "You *durstn't*" and "He *durstn't*" (pronounced *durssent*), frequently employed by careless speakers as a present tense form, is also incorrect, *durstn't* being a proper contraction of the past tense form *durst not,* and, consequently, correctly employed only in such constructions as, "She told him that he *durstn't* go;" "He did not go because he *durstn't.*" (Pronounced *dursent.*) (*Durst not* or *dared not* is the form of the past tense.)

Data.

Data, pronounced either *day'ta* or *da'ta* (*a* as in ask), but not *dah'ta* (*a* as in father), is a plural noun; in consequence, constructions like "What *is* the *data* in the case?" are incorrect, the plural verb *are* being required instead.

Date.

Date is incorrectly used in the sense of an *engagement;* as, "I have a *date* this evening," instead of "I have an *engagement* this evening."

Deal.

Deal, in the sense of *transaction, agreement,* or *arrangement,* is incorrect. Instead of say-

ing, "I have a *deal* on hand," one should say, "I have a *transaction* on hand."

Deal With.

Deal, in the sense of *discuss,* is properly followed by *with,* and not by *on* or *of;* as, "The subject *deals with* the necessity for taxation on personal incomes."

Dear and My Dear.

Dear is regarded as less formal than *my dear* in the salutation of a letter.

Decided and Decisive.

A *decided* answer is one that is definite; a *decisive* answer is one that terminates a discussion; as: "I will give you a *decided* answer this afternoon;" "His answer was *decisive* and terminated the discussion," meaning that his answer admitted of no further questioning.

Again, a *decided* victory is not necessarily a *decisive* victory, a *decided* victory being one about which there can be no question; a *decisive* victory, one that terminates a campaign.

Deduction and Induction.

Deduction is that which is deduced from principles or premises; it is the conclusion that we reach when we reason from a principle or law to a fact. *Induction* is the building up from fact to law; it is the conclusion that we reach when we reason from particular cases to the governing law.

Definite and Definitive.

Definite is similar in meaning to *decided;* it means *fixed* or *established; especially* or pre-

cisely prescribed; as, "I have a *definite* plan." *Definitive* means *final, conclusive;* as, "The decision that the two countries have reached is *definitive.*"

Delicious, Delightful.

Delicious pertains to the pleasures of the senses; *delightful,* to that which *charms;* as, "A *delicious* supper;" "A *delightful* musical."

Delusion and Illusion.

A *delusion* is a false impression or belief; an *illusion* is an unreal image that one thinks one sees; as, "He had a *delusion* that some one was pursuing him;" "The mirage is an optical *illusion.*"

Delighted At, In, With, By.

At.—Satisfaction; as, "I am *delighted at* the number present to-day." *In.*—Rejoiced in doing; as, "He *delighted in* doing good deeds." *With.*—Greatly pleased with; as, "I am *delighted with* my new home." *By.*—To affect with rapture; as, "The ear is *delighted by* harmony."

Demean and Debase.

Demean means simply to *behave.* A man may *demean* himself as a gentleman or as a villain. *Debase,* on the other hand, means to *degrade.*

Depositary and Depository.

A nice distinction in their practical use restricts *depositary* to mean a person with whom one deposits something for safe-keeping; *depository,* a place in which something is deposited.

Depot and Station.

The present tendency is to use *station* instead of *depot* to indicate the landing place for passengers at a railroad terminus.

Desire, Want, Wish, Need.

While *desire* and *wish* are interchangeably used in many instances to indicate the longing for something regarded as desirable, *desire* is used of that which is near at hand or in thought; *wish,* of that which is remote. Again, *desire* being a Latin derivative is not so simple a word as the Anglo-Saxon *wish;* in consequence, *desire* is used more especially of the higher things or of those which are coveted. We *desire* wealth, distinction, honor, fame; we *wish* to visit a friend. *Want* is used of that which may be simply lacking or which may be both lacking and necessary; *need* is used of that which is lacking and necessary. One may *want* a new garment, but may not *need* it. *Want* should not be interchangeably used with *wish.* One properly says, "I *wish* to see you," not "I *want* to see you."

Despatch and Dispatch.

Dispatch, etymologically considered, is the correct spelling, but *despatch* has so largely displaced it, that it now takes precedence over the other.

Die.

One dies *of* a disease; *from* hunger; *by* violence; *for* another or *for* one's country. One should not say, "He died *with* pneumonia;" but "He died *of* pneumonia."

Different Than or To.

Different than, or *to* is always incorrect, *from* being required instead; as, "This is *different from* that."

Differently is likewise followed by *from;* as, "This book is bound *differently from* that."

Differ From and Differ With.

"Differ *from*" is used in the sense of "different *from*" to express a difference; as: "Character *differs from* reputation;" "I *differ from* him in my political views." "Differ *with*" is used to express *disagreement by word of mouth; dispute;* as, "They *differ with* each other every time that they meet."

Direct and Address.

Direct, in the sense of *address* as to *direct* a letter, is criticised by some writers, but this use is recorded as correct. Possibly the tendency to employ *address* to the exclusion of *direct,* is one that should be encouraged.

Direct and Directly.

Direct is an adverb as well as an adjective. As an adverb, it is used interchangeably with the adverb *directly* to indicate *in a straight line or course;* as: "He went *direct* to the point," "He went *directly* to the point;" "Ship the goods *direct* from St. Louis," or "Ship the goods *directly* from St. Louis." *Direct* is construed as an adjective in such sentences as, "Make the shipment *direct* (shipment [to be] *direct;* that is, a *direct* shipment); and, as an adverb would not conform to the requirements of grammar in constructions of this kind, *di-*

rectly would be incorrect. When the idea to be conveyed is *without the intervention of any medium, directly* more closely expresses the meaning, *direct* not being used in this sense; as: "He voted *directly,* and not through a representative;" "Please correspond with me *directly* in this matter."

Directly and Immediately.

Directly, in the sense of *immediately,* as, "I will come *directly,*" is correct. When used in the sense of *as soon as,* both, *directly* and *immediately* are objectionable. Instead of "*Directly* he arrived, he called on his employer," *as soon as* should be used.

Disappoint.

Disappoint implies *defeat; frustration;* in consequence, it should not be used of that which is agreeable; as, "We feared that it would rain, but we were *agreeably disappointed.*" "Agreeably surprised" is the correct form.

Discern, Discriminate, Distinguish.

Discern is "to see apart;" *discriminate* is "to judge apart;" and *distinguish* is "to mark apart, or recognize by some marked difference;" as, "He *discerned* a difference between the two propositions; he *discriminated* in favor of the first, and *distinguished* the difference by pointing out the characteristics of each."

Discommode and Incommode.

Discommode in the sense of *incommode or inconvenience* is now obsolete. Instead of saying, "I fear that I shall *discommode* you," one should say, "I fear that I shall *incommode* (or *inconvenience*) you."

Disinterested and Uninterested.

Disinterested is "wanting in self-interest," *uninterested,* "wanting in interest."

Dislike and Hate.

See *Hate.*

Dislike Him Worse.

See *Worse* and *More.*

Disremember.

Disremember in the sense of *forget* is incorrect.

Distant and Remote.

See *Remote.*

Do So.

Do so is correct when the speaker wishes to avoid repeating some preceding word. While some critics object to the substitutionary use of *do* and *so,* these words are correctly employed in such constructions as, "We can begin at once provided those who were asked to take part in the program are ready *to do so.*"

Donate.

Donate is properly used when the gift is important; otherwise, *give* is required; as, "He *donated* a large sum to the church;" "He *gave* five dollars to the fresh air fund."

Don't Think.

In strict usage, "I think that I shall not," not "I don't think that I shall," is the correct form; but, as "I don't think" has the sanction of almost universal employment, it should not be censured.

For special uses of *don't,* see, respectively, *Contractions, Double Negatives, Doubt whether* and *Doubt that.*

Double Negatives.

Double negatives like *can't hardly, don't hardly, isn't but one,* are incorrect. Instead of these wordings, one should say, for example, "I *can hardly* wait for him;" "I *hardly know* what to do." "There *is but one* more left."

DOUBLE POSSESSIVES.*

The term "double possessive" applies to nouns that indicate possession in a two-fold way; first, by the use of the preposition *of;* and, secondly, by a change in themselves and by the use of the preposition *of* as well; as by an internal change, in the case of some pronouns, or by the addition of the apostrophe and the letter *s;* thus: "She is a friend *of* my *aunt's.*"

Rule.—Use the apostrophe and the letter *s* (or change the form) only when the noun (or pronoun) itself represents the possessor. Thus:

1. This is a picture *of John's.* (John's picture; that is, John possesses it.)
2. This is a picture *of John's.* (John merely sat for it.)
3. This is a criticism *of John's.* (John's criticism; that is, John wrote it.)
4. This is a criticism *of John.* (Some one else wrote it about John.)
5. This is an opinion *of John's.* (John's opinion; that is, John uttered it.)
6. This is an opinion *of John.* (Some one else uttered it.)

To summarize, double possession is strictly correct even when there is but one person or thing possessed, except in cases where double

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possession would convey a meaning opposite to the one intended, as in the second, fourth and sixth sentences.

FURTHER EXAMPLES.

He is a friend *of the Bank's.* (One of several friends.)

He is an enemy *of mine.* (One or more possessed by me.)

He is a brother *of mine.* (One or more possessed by me.)

He is a friend *of hers.* (One or more possessed by her.)

I cannot endure that rasping voice *of Bridget's.* (One voice.)

He is an employee *of my uncle's.* (One or more possessed by my uncle.)

When the article *the* is used instead of *a,* double possession is not employed; thus: "This was the home of Longfellow. (Not Longfellow's.)

This is the birthplace of the President. (Not President's.)

This is private office of the Secretary. (Not Secretary's.)

Doubt In My Mind.

"In my mind" is superfluous in the sentence, "I *don't doubt in my mind* that he will come."

Doubt Whether and Doubt That.

Doubt whether and *doubt that* are equally correct, but they express slightly variant meanings. "I *doubt whether* (or not) I shall go," conveys the meaning not only that I doubt that I shall go, but also that I doubt that I shall not go (doubt that I shall stay); whereas, "I *doubt that* I shall go," expresses doubt only as to my

going. So with the expressions, "I *don't know* whether (or not) he has come," and "I *don't know that* he has come," the second form expresses doubt only as to the coming. In other words, the use of *whether* implies an alternative; whereas, the use of *that* expresses no alternative. Possibly the distinction in meaning is so slight that we may regard it as a distinction with hardly a difference.

Doubt That and Doubt But That.

But is always superfluous when used with *doubt*. One may say, "I *doubt* that he will come," or "I don't *doubt* that he will come;" *but* adding nothing to the meaning. In the sentence, "I do not know that I shall go," a meaning is conveyed opposite to that in "I do not know *but that* I shall go; *but* not being superfluous in the second sentence. In the foregoing, *but* is properly used to convey a specific meaning: "I do not know that I shall go" (not certain about going); "I do not know *but* that I shall go" (inclined to think that I shall go). *But what* is correct only when the meaning is *but that which;* as, "I have nothing *but what* I brought in my trunk."

Dove and Dived.

Dived is the preferred form in the past tense; as, "He *dived* into the lake." *Dived* is the required form in the perfect tenses; as, "He *has* (or *had*) *dived;*" "They *have* (or *had*) *dived.*"

Draft and Draught.

A *draft* is an order for the payment of money; it is also the preferred spelling for a current of air.

Drank and Drunk.

Drank is correctly used in the past tense; *drunk,* in the perfect tenses; as, I *drank* a glass of water," "I *have* (or *had*) *drunk,*" etc. "He *has* (or *had drunk*)," etc.

See *Have, Has,* and *Had.*

Drive and Ride.

A nice distinction restricts *drive* to express motion in a carriage; *ride,* motion on horseback or in a public conveyance. An Englishman *drives* only when the vehicle is one that permits of his holding the reins, whether he actually does so or not; otherwise, he rides; in consequence, he *drives,* for example, in a phaeton, a cart, or a dray, but *rides* in a brougham, in a public conveyance, or on horseback. In this country, so fine a distinction hardly exists, *drive* being used of all conveyances propelled by horses, except public ones; in consequence, one would *drive* in a Victoria, brougham, or cart, and *ride* in a public conveyance, an automobile or on horseback.

Due To.

Although *due* is censured by some writers as being carelessly employed in the sense of *owing,* this use is recorded as correct. The following is suggested by those who would restrict *due* to mean *that which is to be given or paid; owing,* to indicate *the source of some existing condition;* as, "This explanation is *due* to you." "The accident was *owing* to carelessness."

E.

Each, Every, and their compounds *each one, every one* or *everybody,* should never be used

with plural verbs or pronouns. One properly says: "*Each* of the children *has his* own room;" "*Each one knows his* own affairs better than any one else;" "*Every* child should do what *his* teacher tells *him* to do;" "*Every one has his* peculiarities." Such constructions as, "*Each* of the children *have* their own room," "*Each one knows their* own affairs," etc., are incorrect. See *Concord of Subject* and *Verb,* Rule 3.

Each Other and One Another.

Each other is properly used of only two persons; *one another,* of more than two; as: "The two children love *each other* dearly;" "The *three* sisters are devoted to *one another.*" *Each,* without *other* may be used of several; as, "*Each* pupil is requested to remain after school."

Eat, Ate, Eaten.

In the most approved usage, *eat* is used as a present or a future tense form; *ate,* as a past tense, and *eaten* as a perfect tense and also a present and a past tense in the passive voice; as: "*Eat* your breakfast;" "I *shall eat* my breakfast later;" "I *ate* my breakfast at seven o'clock;" "I *have* just *eaten* my breakfast." "*Was* the bread *eaten?*" "*Has* the cake *been eaten?*"

Eat (pronounced *et*) is recorded as a past tense form, but precedence is given to *ate;* in the perfect tense, *eat* (et) is recorded as sometimes used; but, as indicated, *ate* and *eaten* are, respectively, the approved forms for the past and perfect tenses, also the present and past tenses of the passive voice, they be-

ing almost universally employed by cultured speakers.

Effect and Affect.

See Affect.

Either and Neither, He or She Is.

See *Concord of Subject and Verb,* Rule 10.

Either, Neither, and Anyone.

See *Neither, Either,* etc.

Either and Each or Both.

Either is improperly used in the sense of *each* or *both*. Instead of saying, "Flowers grew on *either* side of the path," one should say, "Flowers grew on *each* side" or "on *both* sides of the path."

Either He or I Am.

See *Concord of Subject and Verb.*

Elder, Eldest; Older, Oldest.

Elder and *eldest* are used only of persons; *older* and *oldest* of both persons and things. Again, *elder* and *eldest* apply only to members of the same family, while *older* and *oldest* are not so restricted. One properly says: "John is the *elder* of the *two* brothers;" "Mary is the *eldest* of the *three* sisters;" "His *eldest* son attends college;" "My *elder* brother is not at home;" "Of the *two* pupils, John is the *older;*" "Mary is the *oldest* of the *three* friends;" "His is the *oldest* house in town." In comparisons followed by *than, older,* and not *elder,* is required even when applied to members of the same family; as, "John is *older than* his sister."

Elegant.

Elegant should not be used in the sense of

excellent, delicious, or *delightful;* as, "an *elegant* dinner (or *pudding*);" "an *elegant* program;" etc. "An *excellent* dinner;" "a *delicious* pudding;" "an *excellent* (*delightful* or *entertaining*) program," are the required forms. One properly speaks of "an *elegant* gown;" "an *elegant* apartment;" *elegant* denoting that which is in faultless taste, characterized by refinement, grace, or symmetry.

Else and But.

Else is properly followed by *than,* and not by *but.* One correctly says: "It was *no one else* (or *no other*) *than* he;" or, "It was *no* one *but* him." (Observe that the nominative *he* follows *than,* and that the objective *him* follows *but.*)

Else's.

See *Anybody Else's.*

Emerge and Immerge.

To *emerge* is to come out or proceed from something; to *immerge* is to *disappear;* to *plunge into something;* as, "The stag *emerged* from the shadow of the trees;" "The moon suddenly *immerged* behind the clouds;" "The boat suddenly *immerged,* but soon reappeared." (Note the spelling of the two words.)

Emigrant and Immigrant.

An *emigrant* is one that leaves a place for another locality; an *immigrant* is one that enters a new locality; as, "Several thousand *emigrants* leave Europe every month for America;" "Several thousand *immigrants* arrive each month at New York from Europe." (Note the spelling of the two words.)

Eminence, Eminent; Imminence, Imminent; Immanence, Immanent.

Eminence means *an elevated place;* a *high degree;* as, "He was unable to reach the *eminence* that he sought;" *eminent* means *distinguished;* as, "He is an *eminent* lawyer." *Imminence* means *impending danger;* as, "The *imminence* of his peculiar situation did not alarm him;" *imminent* means *threatening to happen;* as, "He was in *imminent* danger of losing his life." *Immanence* means a *permanent abiding within;* in theology it means the essential presence of God in all the universe; as, "The Christian doctrine of the divine *immanence* is the essence of all religion; *immanent* means *indwelling; inherent;* as, "The *immanent* qualities of a religion determine its character."

En and In.

As an affix, when *en* and *in* are both recorded, precedence is given to *in* in the spelling of *inquire, inquirer, inquiry,* by both Century and Standard. In the spelling of *inclose,* Century prefers "*in*close," Standard, "*en*close." In "*en*dorse" and "*in*dorse," Century favors "*in*dorse;" Standard records that the affix *in* is preferable in legal and commercial use; *en,* in literary use." To simplify the matter, it might be well to use the affix *in* in all these words and follow this style invariably; as: *inquire, inquirer, inquiry; inclose, indorse.*

Enclose and Inclose.

See *En* and *In.*

Enclosed (Inclosed) please find.

Please is criticised by some writers as superfluous in the expression, "Enclosed (Inclosed)

please find my check." Inasmuch as *please* softens the imperative form it should hardly be criticised. The difficulty can be overcome by substituting the shorter wording, "I (or we) inclose," etc.

Enclose (Inclose) Herewith.

Herewith is superfluous in the wording, "I inclose *herewith.*" It might be well to eliminate it and write simply, "I inclose."

Endorse and Indorse.

See *En* and *In.*

Endorse (Indorse) and Approve.

Endorse (indorse) should not be used in the sense of *approve.* Instead of saying, "I *indorse* his conduct in this matter," one should say, "I *approve* of his conduct in this matter."

Endwise.

See *Lengthwise and Sidewise.*

Enthuse.

Enthuse is recorded as a slang expression. Instead of saying, "I was greatly *enthused,* one should say, "My enthusiasm was aroused."

Epithet.

An *epithet* is merely an appellation, and it may be one of condemnation or of praise. To say, "He used several epithets," is an ambiguous expression. A qualifying adjective like *villifying* or *complimentary* is required.

Equally as.

As is superfluous when preceded by *equally,* for the reason that *as* itself expresses equality. One properly says, "I like this *equally* well as

that," or, "I like this *as* well as that," but not "I like this *equally as* well as that."

Er and Or.

1. *Er* is both an English and a Latin suffix. The English suffix *er* was originally attached to verbs to form nouns expressing the agent or *doer;* as "read*er*," "rent*er*." Although usually employed to denote a person, it may also indicate an inanimate object; as, "heat*er*," "poke*r*. *Or* is a Latin suffix, and is attached to derivatives denoting either persons or inanimate objects; as, "confess*or*," "radiat*or*." Latin derivatives in *or* are often interchangeably spelled with *er;* as, "confess*or*" or "confess*er;*" "instruct*or*," "instruct*er*." A rule which, however, has its exceptions distinguishes Latin derivatives ending in *or* from English words ending in *er;* as: (Latin) "instruct*or;*" (English) "teach*er*." Again *or* is used with the names of places to signify an inhabitant of the place; as, "New York*er*," "London*er*," "New England*er*."

2. The Latin suffix *er* is not, as a rule, associated with nouns formed from verbs. It usually indicates the person or doer; as, "commission*er*," "prison*er*."

Eruption and Irruption.

An *eruption* is a bursting forth; an *irruption* is an invasion. (Note the spelling of the two words.)

Especial and Special; Especially and Specially.

Especial and *special* are interchangeable in meaning, but *special* is more common. In some

of their meanings, *especially* and *specially* are interchangeable, as, for example, in such sentences as, "He is *specially* interested," etc., or "He is *especially* interested." *Specially,* however, has another meaning in which it is not synonymous with *especially,* as, in the sense of a particular reason or purpose, by special or exceptional action or proceeding; as, "An officer was *specially* designated to see that the law was enforced." In regard to the respective uses of *especially* and *specially,* Century gives the following: *Especially* is for rhythmical reasons (because it occurs most frequently at the beginning of a dependent clause, where usually an unaccented particle occurs, and where, therefore, a word with an accent on the first syllable is instinctively avoided) much more common than *specially.*

Ess.

See *Authoress, Editress, Doctress, Lecturess.*

Etc.

Etc. should not be repeated; as, for example, "nouns, pronouns, *etc., etc.*" Again, *etc.* must not be used unless the omitted context is definitely understood.

Eternal and Everlasting.

Eternal applies to that which has no beginning or end; *everlasting,* to that which has no end and which may or may not have had a beginning. A nice use would restrict *eternal* to apply to that which has no beginning nor end; *everlasting,* to that which has a beginning, but no end.

Evenings.

See *Mornings.*

Ever So and Never So.

Ever, used as an adverb and followed by *so,* to mean *very, exceedingly* is correctly employed in such constructions as, "He is *ever so* rich." *Ever* is recorded also as meaning *to whatever extent; to whatever degree;* for this reason, *ever so* is now commonly employed in the sense of *never so,* meaning also to *whatever extent; no matter how.* Some authorities indicate that *ever so* should not displace *never so* when extent or degree is implied, but other writers equally authoritative sanction this use, so that one may say, "Be he *ever so* rich, a man should not be idle;" that is, to whatever extent a man may be rich, he should not be idle. *Never so* is virtually an idiom with an elliptical comparison understood, the real meaning being, *not ever* (never) so (rich, great, etc.) as in the supposed case. Because of this meaning, some authorities indicate that one should discriminate between the uses of *ever so* and *never so,* reserving *ever so* to express the emphatic *very* or *exceedingly,* and *never so,* the elliptical comparison, using *never,* not as an adverb of degree but as an adverb of time,—not ever so (rich, great) as in the supposed case; as, "If he run *never so* fast, he can not catch the train; that is, if he run so fast as he never before ran," etc. This very nice distinction, however, is confusing and unnecessary. It is better to avoid the use of *never so,* and permit *ever so* to be used in its stead, construing it to mean *very,* or *exceedingly,* or *no matter how,* as the case may require.

Every Confidence.

Every should not be used in the sense of

entire or *implicit,* or without the adjective *kind,* or some modifying word; as, "I have *every* confidence in him;" "He gave me *every* attention." "*Entire* (or implicit) confidence" and "*Every kind* of attention" are the correct forms. *Every* is distributive, and in consequence can not modify a noun incapable of being separated into parts.

Every Once in a While.

Instead of using such expressions as, "I go there *every* once in a while," one properly says, "I go there *once* in a while," or "I go there now and then" or "I go there every little while." "Once in a while" is a meaningless phrase.

Every Which Way.

"Every which way" is incorrect for *every way; in all directions.* Instead of saying, "He ran *every which way,*" one should say, "He ran in all directions."

Evidence and Testimony.

Evidence is a legal term. It applies to all the means by which the truth is made manifest. *Testimony* is merely a species of evidence.

Except and Excepting.

Except and *excepting* (preposition) are interchangeably used; as, "I have finished all *except* (or *excepting*) this."

Excessively.

Excessively is *incorrectly* used for exceedingly in such expressions as, "The weather is

excessively warm;" "The weather is *exceedingly* warm" is the required form, *excessively* meaning an excess of that which should not be exceeded.

Excite and Incite.

Excite means to produce agitation; *incite,* to arouse to action; as, "His words *excited* the people and eventually *incited* them to tear down the edifice."

Excuse Me and Pardon Me.

"*Excuse* me" is nicely used when one wishes to leave the room; "*pardon* me," when one apologizes for a breach of etiquette.

Executer and Executor.

An *executer* is one that performs an act; an *executor* is an administrator of an estate.

Exodus.

Exodus applies to the outgoing of a large number of persons; as, "The *exodus* of the Israelites." *Exit* applies to one's departure from a room or house; as, "His *exit* from the room was hasty;" *departure* applies to one's leaving the city; as, "His *departure* from Chicago was sudden."

Experience.

Although *experience* has been criticised by some writers as incorrectly employed in the sense of to *suffer* or *receive,* this use is recorded as correct. In other words, when applied to the feelings, *experience,* whether used as a verb or a noun, is correctly used; as, "He *experienced* joy" (*hope, sorrow,* and the like).

Expect and Suppose.

See *Suppose.*

Extend.

In nice usage, *extend* should not be used for *send* in such construction as, "I am going to *extend* an invitation to her to visit me;" "I am going to *send,*" etc., being the correct form. *Extend* means *to stretch, to expand, to continue, to prolong;* as, "to *extend* roads;" "to *extend* the territories of a kingdom;" "to *extend* the sphere of usefulness;" "to *extend* the time of payment."

(*Extend* is also used in the sense of *offer; to bestow;* as, to *extend* the hospitality of one's home.)

F.

Family.

When the family is referred to as an entity, a singular verb is used; when the individuals of the family are referred to, a plural verb is required; as: "My *family is* going abroad;" "My *family are* all well."

Farther and Further.

In nice usage, *farther* expresses distance; *further,* that which is additional; as: "Shall we walk *farther?*" or, figuratively, "I shall not proceed *farther* in the matter;" "I have nothing *further to say.*"

Fault (at or in).

A person is *at fault* when he makes a mistake; *in fault* when he is to blame.

Favor and Letter.

Letter is regarded by many as preferable to *favor* because of its definiteness of expression. Instead of writing, "I have your *favor* of the 21st instant," write "I have your *letter,*" etc.

Favor, however, is recorded as correctly used in the sense of *letter.* As an overworked term, it might be well to avoid its use.

Feel badly.

See *Bad and Badly.*

Female.

Female is properly used as the correlative of *male;* as, "Statistics show that the state has several thousand more *females* than males." *Female,* as a correlative of *man,* is always incorrect. Instead of "The *females* of the community," *women* is the required form. Again, *female,* as a synonym of *feminine,* is always incorrect, the latter term properly being used when mental characteristics of women are referred to; as, "She possessed many *feminine* traits common to woman," not "She possessed many *female* traits," etc. Again, *female* is used as a term of contempt; as, "The mob was composed in the main of *females.*"

Fermentation and Fomentation.

Fermentation is a chemical decomposition of matter, and, by extension, when used in a figurative sense, means *excitement* or *agitation. Fomentation* is the act of warming with heated water, and, figuratively, means *incitement, instigation,* or *encouragement.* Macaulay writes: "The founders of the English Church wrote and acted in an age of violent intellectual *fermentation;*" and Young:

"And dive in science for distinguished names,
Dishonest *fomentation* of your pride."

Fetch.

Fetch means *to go and bring;* in conse-

quence, we should say either "*Go and bring* me a book from the library," or "*Fetch* me a book from the library," but not "*Go and fetch* me a book," etc.

Few and A Few.

See *A Few and Few.*

Fewer and Less.

Fewer applies to *number; less,* to *size;* as: "There were *fewer* than four members present;" "He has *less* difficulty now than formerly."

Figure and Amount.

Figure, used in the sense of *amount,* as, "I will not sell the property at that *figure,*" ininstead of "I will not sell the property for that *amount,*" has been criticised by some authorities, but it is recorded as correctly used in this sense, it having the sanction of both literary and business usage.

Final.

Final is used of that which is ended or completed; in consequence, such expressions as "The *final* end" or "The *final* completion" are incorrect, *final* being superfluous.

Financial, Monetary, Pecuniary.

Financial applies to public funds, to the revenues of a government, or to large private transactions. *Monetary* and *pecuniary* apply to transactions between individuals. *Monetary* relates more especially to actual money, a *monetary* transaction being one in which money is involved. *Pecuniary* relates to that in which money is indirectly involved; as, one's *pecuniary* affairs, difficulties, etc. We

speak properly of the *financial* affairs of the government; of *monetary* transactions between individuals; of giving *pecuniary* aid to an individual.

Financial and Fiscal.

The *fiscal* year, referring to the financial accounting done in a year's time, in the affairs of a nation or of a private business, is preferable to the *financial* year. (In the United States, the *fiscal* year ends June 30.)

Finish and Complete.

See *Complete.*

Finished.

Instead of saying, "I *am through* my breakfast," one should say, "I *have finished* my breakfast."

First-rate.

First-rate is an adjective, and, in strict usage, should be employed only when it can modify a noun; as, "This is a *first-rate* book." In colloquial use, *first-rate* is employed as an adverb; as, "This works *first-rate*"; but this is a loose employment of the word.

First.

First is superfluous in such constructions as, "I must *first* write a letter before I can go."

First Two and Last Two.

The first two and *The last two* are correct when more than two persons or things are under consideration. Inasmuch as there cannot be *two firsts* or *two lasts,* it is obvious that the wording should be as indicated.

Firstly.

Firstly is always incorrect, *first* being the form of both the adjective and the adverb.

First, Second, etc.; First, Secondly, etc.

The adjectives *first, second, third,* etc., are required when the noun is modified; the adverbs *first, secondly, thirdly,* etc., when the verb is modified; as: "The following are my reasons: *first,* I have no time to give to the matter; *second,* I know of no one whom I can recommend; *third,*" etc. (First reason, second reason, third reason.) "The disturbance was caused *first* by the explosion of the boiler; *secondly,* etc.; *thirdly,*" etc. (*Was caused first, secondly,* etc.)

Folk and Folks.

Folk is a collective noun and is used in the sense of either *people* or *peoples;* as, "The English are virtually the same people or *folk* as the Dutch, both belonging to the same division,—the Low German of the Teutonic Branch of the Aryan Family." *Folks* is used in the sense of *persons;* as, "The young *folks* of the church;" "The poor *folks* of the town;" "The old *folks* at home;" "How are your *folks?*" The pluralizing of *folks* has been censured by some authorities, but the criticism is unwarrantable, *folks* used in the sense of *persons* being recorded as unobjectionable.

Fish and Fowl.

Fish is a collective as well as a singular noun; in consequence, one properly says, "I caught a *fish;*" "We had a large catch of *fish*" (many, several). The plural form *fishes* is

used when not thought of collectively; as, "How should you like to live in the sea where all the *fishes* are swimming about?"

Fix.

Fix is properly used to mean *to put into thorough adjustment or repair.* Such expressions as, "He is in a bad *fix,*" meaning embarrassed financially or otherwise, are not in accordance with good usage. Again, *fix,* in the sense of *put, set,* or *arrange,* is criticised. Instead of, "*Fix* the flowers in the vase," one should say, "*Put* (or *arrange*) the flowers in a vase." *Fix* meaning to *injure,* and *fix up, to dress elegantly,* are vulgarisms.

Forbid From.

From is incorrectly used in such constructions as, "I *forbid* you *from* going to such places;" "I *forbid* your going" or "I *forbid* you to go" being the correct form.

Former and Latter.

Former and *latter* are properly used when referring to two persons or things. When confusion might arise from the use of these terms, they must be avoided. Such constructions as the following are confusing: "Mr. Brown said that his employer wished him to call on the superintendent, but the *former* would not say what the business was about." It is impossible to determine to what the word *former* refers.

For You and Me.

The objective *me,* not the nominative *I,* is required in such constructions as, "This is for you and *me,*" the preposition *for* requiring to

be followed by the objective case (*me, her, him, us, them*).

For and To.

For and *to* are superfluous in such constructions as, "The house cost more than you think *for;*" "Where is he going *to?*"

Forward and Forwards.

Forward and *forwards* are used interchangeably as opposed to *forward* and *backwards.* See *backward* and *backwards.*

Four and Five Is or Are.

The following constructions puzzle many who do not know whether *is* or *are* is required; thus:

1. Four and five (is or are) nine.
2. Four plus five (is or are) nine.
3. Eight less five (is or are) three.
4. Four times five (is or are) twenty.
5. One-half of eight (is or are) four.
6. Eight divided by two (is or are) four.

In the first construction, the plural verb *are* is required, because the subject is grammatically compound; that is, there are two subject nouns connected by *and* in such a way as to form a plural subject. (In this connection, note that *and* used as a connective between two subject nouns does not always make the subject plural.)

In the second and third constructions, the singular verb *is* is required, the words *four* and *eight* being regarded as entities—singular in sense. In these constructions, there is an ellipsis, in each case, of the preposition *by;* thus: "*Four* plus (more) *by* five *is* nine;" "*Eight* less *by* five *is* three."

In the fourth construction, the plural form *times* makes the plural verb *are* preferable. This sentence may be construed as follows: "Four *times* (repetitions) *of* five are twenty."

In the fifth construction, the subject *half* is singular and so takes a singular verb. (*Half* is singular or plural, according to the context; and, inasmuch as *eight* may be regarded as an entity, *half* in this sentence may be construed as singular. See *Half,* CONCORD OF SUBJECT AND VERB.)

In the sixth construction, *eight* is the subject noun, modified by the participial phrase, "divided by two." *Eight* being regarded as an entity, is construed as singular, and, hence, takes a singular verb.

Full.

Full is regarded as incapable of comparison. A *full* cup, for example, cannot be fuller. However, there is a growing tendency to compare such words as *full, perfect, complete* and the like, the positive form being regarded as expressing that which is nearly full, perfect, complete.

Fragrance and Aroma.

Fragrance and *aroma* are both defined as an agreeable odor; but, in nice usage, *fragrance* is used of fresh, delicate, and delicious odors, especially such as emanate from living things, while *aroma* is more restrictively employed to denote a somewhat spicy odor; as, "The *fragrance* of new-mown hay;" "of fresh flowers;" "the *aroma* of coffee."

Funny.

Funny, in the sense of *queer,* is not in accordance with the best usage of the language. One should avoid the use of *funny* to express that which is queer or unusual, and restrict it to express that which is provocative of fun.

From Hence, Thence, Whence.

From is superfluous in the phrases, "*from* hence," "*from* thence," "*from* whence," the preposition being implied.

G

Generally.

See *Commonly.*

Genius and Genus.

Genius implies the possession of rare natural gifts; *genus* means a class or kind.

Give and Donate.

See *Donate.*

Go.

Such expressions as, "I cannot *go* that person," "I will *go* one dollar," are always to be avoided in refined society.

Go Back On.

"Go back on" for *abandon* is not in accordance with good usage.

Going to Do for About to Do.

The phrase *going to do* for *about to do* in such constructions as, "I am just *going* to play," instead of, "I am just *about* to play," is censured by some authorities; but the criticism is hardly justifiable, *going,* in the sense of *about to do,* being recorded as correct. "I am

about to sing," "I shall travel this fall," may be preferred by some; but, as indicated, the other forms are recorded as correct.

Go and Bring.

See *Fetch.*

Go and Come.

See *Come.*

Going to Go.

To go is superfluous in the sentence, "I am *going to go,*" "I am *going*" fully expressing the meaning.

Good and Well.

Good is an adjective, and, in consequence, it must not be used with verbs of action where the adverb *well* is required. One properly says, "He plays *well*" (not good). *Well* is also an adjective, and, in consequence, one may say, "You look *well,*" "I feel *well,*" look and *feel* being verbs of inaction in these constructions. "I feel *good,*" "You look *good,*" do not express the meaning so closely as do, "I feel *well,*" "You look *well,*" for the reason that *well,* in this use, refers more especially to a physical condition; *good,* to a moral condition.

Gotten and Got.

Gotten can be used as well as *got* when not used to express obligation or necessity, as, "I have *got* (or *gotten*) to a place where I need more assistance." See Century and Standard.

In this connection, note that when either possession or obligation is to be expressed, *got* is always superfluous; thus: "I *have* my purse" (not "I have *got* my purse"); "I *have* to go" (not "I have *got* to go").

Graduated.

A student does not graduate himself, but is *graduated* from an institution of learning; in consequence, one says, for example, "He *was graduated* last June." There is an increasing tendency, however, to use the active form (*graduated*) instead of the passive (*was graduated*), with the result that the active form is becoming established.

Grammar (Good and Bad).

See *Bad Grammar.*

Grow.

Although censured by some critics, *grow* in the sense of *become,* as "to *grow* small," is recorded as in conformity with good usage.

Guess, Suppose, Think.

Guess is used when an opinion is based merely upon probable grounds; as, "See whether you can *guess* who he is." *Suppose* is used when an opinion is based upon grounds that one has good reason to believe exist; as, "I *suppose* that he will come." *Think* is used when an opinion is reached after one has given a subject thought, but where one is not in possession of exact knowledge; as, "I *think* that he will come."

H.

Habit and Custom.

See *Custom.*

Had Better.

"I had better go," is incorrect according to the grammar of the language, but correct according to its usage; that is, the usage of cultured and educated speakers and writers. "I had better go" and "I had rather go," are

changed forms of the old English, "I had liefer to go"; but, in modern usage, they have undergone transformation.

"We were liefer die," was the Anglo-Saxon form, meaning *to me it would be dearer to die;* but from the time of Chaucer, "I had liefer" was the more common idiom; from 1550 to the present time, "I had rather" or "I had better."

"I would better" and "I would rather," have been urged by reformers, as syntactical expressions, but the usage of the language is rather in favor of the idiom. "Had better" and "had best" are interchangeably used and are equally correct.

Had Have.

Had have, or, as it is often pronounced, *haduv,* is always incorrect. Instead of saying, "*If I had have* (or *haduv*) known, I should not have gone," one properly says, "If I *had* known," etc. *Have* is, of course, properly used before *had;* as, "I *have had* a very pleasant time."

Had Ought.

Had ought is always incorrect. One properly says, "I ought to have done so," "I ought not to have done so," not "I *had ought,*" etc.

Hain't.

Hain't is a vulgarism. It is never excusable for *haven't* or *hasn't.*

Half.

See *Concord of Subject and Verb, Half, Part, Remainder, Rest.* **P. 37.**

Half and Halves.

The expressions "Cut the apple *in half*" or "Cut the apple *into halves*" are equally correct. As there cannot be more than two *halves, two* is superfluous in the sentence, "Cut the apple into *two* halves."

Handful.

The same rule that applies to the formation of *cupful* applies also to *handful.* See *Cupful.*

Handy and Convenient.

Handy is properly used of that upon which one may lay one's hand; also used of persons that are ready for immediate service; as, "My fountain pen is very *handy.*" "He is a *handy* boy to have in the house." *Convenient* is correct to use when referring to that which is near by; as, "It is very *convenient* to live near the city."

Happen and Transpire.

Happen means *to occur; transpire, to make known.* Instead of saying, "Tell me what has *transpired* in my absence," one properly says, "Tell me what has *happened* (or *occurred*)," etc.

Happen in.

"Happen in" is colloquially used in the sense of "to make a chance visit." There is no special objection to the phrase, but some speakers prefer to say, for example, "A friend of mine *chanced to call,*" instead of "A friend of mine *happened in.*"

Hardly.

See *Double Negatives, Can't and Don't Hardly.*

Hardly and Scarcely.

Hardly proper refers to degree; *scarcely,* to quantity; as, "I *hardly* see how I can go;" "I have *scarcely* enough silk for my gown."

Hasten; Hurry.

Hasten is used to express quickness of motion; an increase of activity in motion; *hurry* conveys the same idea, but it is nicely used to convey the additional idea of *confusion;* as, "I *hasten* to answer your letter by return mail;" "*Hurry* as fast as you can or you will miss the train."

Hate and Dislike.

Instead of saying, "I *hate* to go there," one properly says, "I *dislike* to go there." We *dislike* to do that which is disagreeable. We *hate* that for which we have an extreme aversion.

Have or Has.

For the number of the verb in such constructions as, "This is one of the most interesting books that *have* ever been written," see *Concord of Relative Pronoun and Verb.*

Have, Has, and Had.*

Use *have, has,* and *had* only with the participle, not with the past tense form; as: "I have *sung,*" "I have *drunk,*" not "I have *sang,*" "I have *drank.*" (Observe that the two a's are not to be used together.) The following sentences are illustrative:

Sang, Sung.

I *sang* at a concert last evening.

I *have sung* in public several times.

He *had sung* twice before I arrived.

Sank, Sunk.

* Correct English Drill Book.

The boat immediately *sank* to the bottom.

The boat *has sunk.*

The boat *had sunk* before I arrived.

I *have sunk* all the money that I intend to *sink* in this enterprise.

Shrank, Shrunk.

My bathing-suit *shrank* the first time I wore it.

My bathing-suit *has not shrunk.* It might *have shrunk had* not my dressmaker *shrunk* the goods before making the suit.

When goods are *shrunk* before they are washed, they will not *shrink* much, if any, afterwards.

Sprang, Sprung.

I *sprang* to her assistance, but some one else *had sprung* before me.

Has the boat *sprung* a leak?

Swam, Swum.

I *swam* half way across the lake this morning.

If I *had swum* as long as you *swam* this morning I should be ill now.

He *has swum* across the river five times this summer; I *have swum* across only once.

Note—The same rule obtains in the use of *began* and *begun.*

I *began* this letter yesterday.

He *began* to show signs of fatigue.

I *have begun* to study French.

They *had begun* to sing before I arrived.

Has the lecture *begun?*

This work *was begun* in the Spring.

In the passive form, *is sung, sunk,* etc., *was sung, sunk,* etc., is required.

Note—In connection with *sang, sank, shrank, sprang, swam,* note that a second spelling of the words is recorded; thus, *sang* or *sung, sank*

or *sunk, shrank* or *shrunk, sprang* or *sprung, swam* or *swum;* but as these spellings are given a secondary position, only the first spellings (*sang, sank, shrank,* etc.) are used by careful speakers; that is, of course, when mere past time is indicated (without the use of *have, has* or *had*).

A secondary spelling, *begun,* is recorded in Century, as *sometimes* used as a past tense form; *began,* however, is always preferable, *begun* being properly restricted to uses as indicated above.

He, She, Him, Her.

See *Case of Pronouns.*

Have Ever.*

The auxiliary *have* is required in such constructions as, "This is the most interesting book that I *have* ever read," as it includes all time up to the present, while the past tense is used to indicate, more especially, a specified time in the past; as, "I read the book yesterday." Thus:

Past Tense.

(A specific time in the past.)

I *saw* him yesterday.
I *saw* him on Monday.
I *bought* the hat when in New York.
I *bought* the trunk in Paris.
I *received* your letter yesterday.

Present-Perfect Tense.

(Time reaches to the present.)

I *have* just *seen* him.
I *have* never *seen* him.
This is the best hat that I *have ever bought.*
I *have* just *received* your letter.

* Correct English Drill Book.

Further Illustrations.

He is one of the finest men that I *have ever known.* (Not "that I *ever knew.*")

She is one of the prettiest girls that I *have ever seen.* (Not "that I *ever saw.*")

This is one of the most interesting books that I *have ever read.* (Not "that I *ever read.*")

It was one of the saddest sights that I *have ever seen.* (Not "that I *ever saw.*")

Have you *ever* met him? (Not "*Did* you *ever meet him?*")

Have you *ever* seen him? (Not "*Did* you *ever see* him?")

Have you *ever* read it? (Not "*Did* you *ever read* it?")

I *have never met* him. (Not "I *never met* him.")

I *have never seen him.* (Not "I *never saw* him.")

I *have never read* it. (Not "I *never read* it.")

Do not use *ever* or *never* with the simple past tense unless a period of time is covered. Thus, while one cannot properly say, "Did you ever see him?" one may say, "Did you ever see him while in Paris?"

Ever and *never,* meaning *at any time, at no time,* may be used with either the past, the present or the future tense when a *period* of time is indicated, as, "*Did* you *ever see* Bernhardt while in Paris?" "*Do* you *ever meet* him on the street?" "*Shall* you *ever go* abroad?" "I *never saw* Bernhardt while in Paris, but I have seen her since." "I *never meet* him on the street, but I often see him at his home." "I *shall never* go abroad." Such

expressions as, "I *never said* any such thing" are colloquial, *never* being incorrectly used as an emphatic *not*.

Have Got.

See *Got*.

Haven't Only.

"*Have* only," not "*haven't* only," is correct; as, for example, "I *have only* one more," double negation being expressed by "haven't only."

Healthful and Healthy.

In nice usage, *healthful* means *conducive to health; healthy* means *possessing health;* as: "Outdoor exercise is very *healthful;*" "The child is very *healthy.*"

The following is the record:

Healthy is most correctly used to signify possessing or enjoying health or its results; as, "a *healthy* person;" "a *healthy* condition." *Healthful* signifies promotive of health, tending or adapted to confer, preserve, or promote health; as, "a *healthful* climate." "Wholesome food in a *healthful* climate makes a *healthy man.*" With *healthful* are ranged the words *hygienic, salubrious, salutary, sanitary,* and *wholesome,* while the words *sound, strong, vigorous,* are associated with *healthy. Salubrious* is always used in a physical sense and is chiefly applied to air or climate. *Salutary* is now chiefly used in the moral sense; as, "a *salutary* lesson."—*Standard.*

Heaps.

Heaps used in the sense of *a great deal* or *a great many,* or *number,* is always incorrect. Instead of saying: "I have had *heaps* of

trouble;" "I have *heaps* of things to do," one should say: "I have had a *great deal* of trouble;" "I have a *great many* things to do." *Heap* is properly used in the sense of something accumulated; as, "a *heap* of rubbish."

Hear To It.

Instead of saying, "He would not *hear to* my going," say, "He would not *consent* to my going."

Help.

Instead of saying, "I have no *help* at present," say, "I have no *maid*" (or *servant*).

Help and Necessary.

Instead of saying, "I do not go there more than I can *help,*" one preferably says, "I do not go there more than is *necessary.*"

"No more than I can help" is a favorite colloquialism that defies analysis. *Help* being used in the sense of *avoid* or *prevent* requires a negative after the comparative with *than,* so that the phrase would regularly be "no more than *I cannot help,*" which is harsh, and to many, ridiculous. It is better to avoid the expression, using, "no more than is *necessary,*" or some similar phrase.—*Standard.*

Hence, Thence, Whence.

See *From Hence,* etc.

Herself, Himself.

Herself, himself, yourself, myself, etc., are properly used only in either a reflexive or an emphatic sense, as, "She hurt *herself,*" "She *herself* said so," "She bought this for *herself,*" *herself* referring back to the pronoun *she.* Likewise *himself* refers back to *he; your-*

self to you, etc.; as, "He *himself* said so," "You have no one but *yourself* to blame." Constructions in which the "self pronouns" do not refer back to the person used, are incorrect; thus: "This is for *yourself;*" "With love to your mother and *yourself,* I am," etc., are incorrect.

Him and Me.

See *Case of Pronouns.*

Himself.

See *Herself.*

Him Going.

Instead of saying, "There is no use in *him* going," one properly says, "There is no use in *his* going," the possessive case being required before the gerund, or verbal noun. Likewise, one says: "There is no use in *my* (not *me*) going;" "There is no use in *your* (not *you*) going."

Hired Girl.

Instead of "hired girl," one properly says *maid* or *servant.*

Home.

Instead of saying, "He is *home,*" one says in nice usage, "He is *at home.*"

Hopes.

The plural form is incorrect in such sentences as, "I have no *hopes* of his recovery." One properly says: "I have no *hope* of his recovery;" "I have no *hope* of going."

How and What.

How? for "What did you say?" does not conform to the best usage of the language.

However.

However should not be used in interrogative sentences in the place of *how* or *how* followed by *ever*. Instead of "*However* could you do it?" one properly says, "*How* could you do it?" or "*How* could you *ever* do it?" *However*, as a conjunctive adverb is correct; as, "*However* wise one may be, there is a limit to one's knowledge."

I.

I and Me.

See *Case of Pronouns.*

I am Not Mistaken.

"I am not mistaken," is idiomatic for "I mistake not;" in consequence, such sentences as, "I think I saw him yesterday if *I am not mistaken,*" are correct, the real meaning being, "I think I saw him yesterday if *I mistake not.*" Reformers insist upon the latter construction as being the grammatical form, but the idiom is generally regarded as preferable.

I Don't Know as I Do.

See *as I do.*

I Should Have Liked to Go.

See *Concord of Infinitive with principal verb.*

I Supposed It to Be Him.

See Case of Pronouns.

I Think I Shall.

Instead of saying, "*I guess I will,*" one properly says, "*I think I shall.*"

I Wish I (He, She, It) Were.

See *Were after wish.*

Ible and Able.

Fitzedward Hall rules as follows: "Generally, the termination is *ible* if the base is the essentially uncorrupted stem of a Latin infinitive or supine of any conjugation but the first. To this rule, however, there are many exceptions. To all verbs, then, from the Anglo-Saxon to all based on the uncorrupted infinitival stems of Latin verbs of the first conjugation, and to all substantives whencesoever sprung, we annex *able* only."

A knowledge of Latin is essential to an understanding of this subject. In the first conjugation, the termination *abilis* gives *able;* in the second, the third, and the fourth, the termination *ibilis* gives *ible.*

Ice-Cream and Ice-Water.

The forms *ice-cream* and *ice-water* have been so generally employed for *iced-cream* and *iced-water,* as to become almost, if not wholly, idiomatic. In consequence, they should not be censured.

If Ever.

See *Seldom if ever.*

If and Though.

If and *though* are interchangeably used in the phrase conjunctions *as if* and *as though.*

If and Whether.

Instead of saying, "I do not know *if* I can go," one properly says, "I do not know *whether* I can go." *If* introduces a suppositional or conditional clause; *whether,* an alternative; as, "I shall not go *if* it rains;" I do not know *whether* I can go." See *Whether.*

If I Were.

Were is used with the present infinitive or the present participle to express a future event about which there is uncertainty. It is properly used when *should* can be used in its stead; as: "*If I were to go,* I should pay half of the expenses." "*If I were going,* I should pay half of the expenses."

"If I were to go," or "If I were going," is equal to "If I should go," which is the form of the future tense of the subjunctive mode.

If It Was and If It Were.*

There is a strong tendency to restrict the use of the present tense of the subjunctive mode (If it *be*) to the literary employment of the language; but many writers, as well as speakers, prefer to use the indicative form (If it *is*) instead of the subjunctive; that is, in the present tense.

In the past tense of the subjunctive mode, *were* is required in all three persons. The following illustrative sentences show the uses of *was* and *were:*

Was.

If I was in the wrong (and I suppose I was), I ask your pardon.

If he was at home (and he was at home), why did you not see him?

If I were you (but I am not), I should go.

If this cup *was* cracked (and it was cracked), why did you buy it?

If the key of the piano *was* broken (and it was), why didn't you speak about it?

* Correct English Drill Book.

Were.

If I were in the wrong (and I am not), I should ask your pardon.

If he were at home (but he is not *at* home), I should ask him to see you.

If I were he (but I am not), I should write.

This cup looks as if it *were* cracked (not sure about it).

The piano sounds as if a key *were broken* (not sure about it).

(Observe that in the foregoing sentences, the past subjunctive form *were* expresses present time.)

Ill and Sick.

There exists a growing tendency to restrict the uses of *ill* and *sick* so as to require *sick* when the meaning is *nauseated,* and to use *ill* in all other instances, except when placed before a noun. Thus: "He is a *sick* man," but not "He is an *ill* man."

Illy.

Illy is always incorrect, ill being the form of both the adjective and the adverb; as, "He is *ill*" (adjective); "He behaved *ill* (adverb)."

Illusion.

See *Delusion.*

Immediately and Directly.

See *Directly.*

I'm Not.

See *Contractions.*

Immerge.

See *Emerge.*

Immigrant.

See *Emigrant.*

Imminence, Imminent.

See *Eminent.*

Immunity and Impunity.

Immunity from *in* (not) and *munus* (service), denotes *freedom from any burden. Impunity,* from *in* (not) and *paena* (punishment), denotes *freedom from punishment;* as: "No one seems to enjoy entire *immunity* from sickness or disease; "The *impunity* with which he committed the crimes is without parallel in history."

Imperative and Imperious.

Imperative means *authoritative; obligatory;* as, "The army received *imperative* orders to march." *Imperious* means *domineering; overbearing;* as, "She was high strung and *imperious.*"

Implicate and Involve.

Implicate is used only of persons; *involve,* of both persons and *things. Implicate* means simply to *enfold; involve,* to *roll into* or *entangle;* hence, *involve* is the more expressive word. Thus, we say: "Several persons are *implicated,*" meaning that suspicion has been directed against them; "Several are involved, meaning that the persons are entangled so deeply as to convert suspicion into belief of their guilt. While *involve* is the stronger word, unlike *implicate,* it does not always imply moral obliquity; thus: we say, "The nation is *involved* in war;" "The man is *involved* in debt;" "The problem is *involved.*"

In and At.

See *At* and *In.* ("He lives in New York"; "He lives at Yonkers.")

In My Mind.

See *Doubt in My Mind.*

In and Into.

In, as a preposition, denotes inclusion; *into,*

entrance; as, "He is *in* the house;" "Come *into* the house."

(When used as an adverb to indicate entrance, *in* may be used, but it is not followed by a noun. Thus, we may say, "Come *in;*" but, as indicated, not "Come *in* the house.")

In Town and to Town.

One properly says, "I am going to town," *to* indicating direction.

In a Street and On a Street.

One properly says, "lives *on* a street," not *in* a street." *On* denotes relative position; *in, inclusion.* The street includes the sidewalk and the road-bed; in consequence, one does not live *in* a street unless one is homeless and friendless. Compare with "He lives *on* the Hudson."

Century says: [On] used of relative position: in a positon at; near, adjacent to; indicating situation or position without implying contact or support; as: "*on* Broadway;" "on the coast of Maine;" hence, very near to, etc.

The usage of the newspaper, modeled after that in England will tend, in time, to establish the general employment of "in the street" in this country.

In Front Of; Before.

In front of refers especially to the position or direction; as, "He stood in *front* of me." While *in front of* is frequently employed to mean *in the presence of;* as, "She said this *in front of* mother and me," *in front of* does not express the meaning so exactly as does the phrase *in the presence of,* or the preposition *before.*

In Future and In the Future.

The is required in the phrase, "In *the* future." Compare with "In *the* past," "In *the* present," *the* being required in each case.

In Our Midst.

Although occasionally censured as incorrect for "in the midst of us," "in our midst" has the sanction of some literary authority.

In So Far As.

In is superfluous. See *As far as, So far as,* etc.

In Spite Of.

As an adverbial phrase to express a stronger meaning than *notwithstanding,* "in spite of," although criticized by some writers, is correctly used.

In Time and On Time.

"*On* time" is correctly employed only as a railroad expression; as, "The train was *on* time." One properly says, "Try to be *in* time," or "to come *in* time."

In and Within.

While *in* is interchangeably used with *within* when the meaning is *during; within the limit or duration of, within* is preferable, for the reason that *in* has still another meaning, namely, *at the expiration of.* A nice discrimination restricts *within* to express *within the limit of,* and *in* to denote *at the expiration of;* as, "He will be here *within* an hour." "He will be here *in* an hour."

Inaugurate.

Although censured by some critics as incorrectly used in the sense of to *initiate* or *to set*

in operation, inaugurate is recorded as properly used in the sense; as, "to *inaugurate* a great reform."

Incite and Excite.

See *Excite.*

Inclose and Enclose.

See *En and In.*

Inasmuch and Insomuch.

Inasmuch means *to such a degree; in view of the fact,* and is followed by *as. Insomuch* means *to such a degree; to such use,* and is followed by *that.*

Indexes and Indices.

Indexes and *Indices* are correct, but restrictive plurals of *index,* the first being used of a table of contents, the second as a scientific or mathematical term.

Indeed! Is That So?

These expressions are criticized as implying a question, and hence as being a kind of rudeness; but the censure is somewhat hypocritical. There is no especial objection to these forms if used sparingly and restricted to familiar conversation.

Indentation and Indention.

An *Indentation* is a notch in an edge or border; an *indention* is a space between the margin and the initial end of a paragraph.

Indict and Indite.

Indict means to present a formal or written charge of crime; *indite* means to put words into writing, but it has no legal significance.

Indorse and Endorse.

See *En and In.*

Indorse (Indorse) on the back.

"On the back" is superfluous in the wording, "Indorse the check *on the back,*" the phrase being implied in the word *indorse,* which means *to write upon the back of.*

Induction.

See *Deduction.*

Infectious and Contagious.

See *Contagious.*

Informed and Posted.

Informed, and not *posted,* is required in such sentences as, "He is *well-informed* on such matters." Again, *post* should not be used in the sense of *inform;* as, "I wish you would *post* me before I go."

Infinitive.

See *Concord of Infinitive with Principal Verb.*

Ingenious and Ingenuous.

Ingenious is used of a person who is clever or able; *ingenuous* is used of one who is free from guile; candid, or frank.

Innumerable.

Innumerable means *without number,* and in consequence, must not be used with the word *number.*

Inquire and Enquire.

See *In and En.*

Intend and Mean.

Intend and *mean* are recorded in our dictionaries as interchangeably used when the meaning

is: *to have in mind, view,* or *contemplation;* also, *to signify, to give to understand.* Some critics, however, suggest that *intend* should be reserved to express the first meaning,—to *have in mind, view,* or *contemplation,* and *mean,* to express the second,—*to signify, to give to understand;* thus: "When do you *intend* (not *mean*) to go?" "What do you *mean* (not *intend*) by these remarks?" It is evident that in the second sentence, *mean* is the proper word, but when mere intention is to be expressed, it would be difficult to eliminate the employment of *mean* and to use only *intend,* for the reason that long and established usage has fixed the interchangeability of these words; thus: we hear as frequently, "I *meant* to write" as "I *intended* to write"; "I *mean* to call" as "I *intend* to call." The use of *intend* in constructions like these, however, seems preferable.

Irritate and Aggravate.

See *Aggravate.*

Irruption.

See *Eruption.*

Is and Are.

See *Concord of Subject and Verb:* also *Four and Five is* or *are.*

Is Being Built.

See *Being built.*

Is Come and Has Come.

Bain gives the following: "We say, '*has* come' as well as '*is* come.' It would seem advantageous to utilize the two forms for different meanings. 'Has come' appears more suitable in the case of an active or personal sub-

ject; as, 'John *has* come;' the other, to a passive or inanimate subject; as, 'The box *is* come.' "

The foregoing also applies to other intransitives, such as "*is* gone" and "*has* gone."

Is Received and Has Been Received.

"*Is* received" denotes present time; "*has been* received," time up to the present; as, "Your letter *is* received" (just received); "Your letter *has been* received" (at any time up to the present).

Is That So.

"*Is that so,*" "*You don't say,*" "*You know,*" "*Don't you know,*" are not in accordance with the best usage of the language.

See *Indeed.*

Isn't Hardly.

See *Double Negatives.*

Isn't That.

See *Double Negatives.*

Ise and Ize.

Such words as "civilize," "criticize," "idealize," have a variant spelling of *ise,* the latter being suggested by those reformers who wish to establish a uniformity in spelling.

Its, It's, and 'Tis.

Its, written without an apostrophe, is the possessive form of *it;* as, "A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in number." *It's,* written with an apostrophe, is a colloquial contraction for *it is;* as, "*It's* better to wear out than to rust out." *'Tis,* with the apostrophe preceding *t,* is chiefly restricted to poetic uses; as, *'Tis* the glad Christmas tide."

J.

Jew, Hebrew, Israelite.

A *Jew* is a member of the Hebraic division of the Semitic race; in consequence *Hebrew* is the linguistic name of the *Jews.*

Standard gives the following:

"Under the theocracy, they were known as *Hebrews;* under the monarchy, as *Israelites;* and during foreign domination, as *Jews.* The modern representatives of this stock call themselves *Hebrews* in race and language, and *Israelites* in religion, but *Jews* in both senses."

Jewelry, Jewels.

Jewelry is a collective noun, and *jewels* is a plural noun. In nine usages the term *jewelry* designates the stock of a jeweler; *jewels,* the articles of adornment worn by a lady.

Join Issue and Take Issue.

In nice usage, "*join* issue" means *to admit the right of the denial of a statement.* "*Take* issue" means merely *to deny.*

Journal.

See *Daily Journal.*

Jump At.

"Jump *at*" is used in the sense of *to embrace eagerly;* as "He *jumped at* the offer." "Jump *at*" should also be used instead of "Jump *to*" in the sense of *arriving at;* as, "He *jumped at* the conclusion," meaning that he arrived at it hastily. "Jump *to*" is properly used when jumping from a high to a low place; as, "He *jumped to* the floor below."

K.

Kid.

In polite usage, *kid* is not properly employed to denote a young child.

Kind Of.

Kind of should not be used for *somewhat.* Instead of "I am *kind of* tired," one properly says, "I am *somewhat* tired."

Kind Of A.

A is superfluous in such constructions as, "What *kind* of man is he" (not "kind of *a*"). The same rule applies to *sort.*

Kind and Kinds.

See *These kind and These sort.*

Kindnesses.

The singular abstract noun *kindness* may be made into a plural common noun by the addition of *es;* as, "I wish to thank you for your many *kindnesses.*" Many abstract nouns may be turned into common nouns in this way: for example, *charity, charities; occupation, occupations; trial, trials; memory, memories; virtue, virtues; vice, vices; sorrow, sorrows; folly, follies;* etc.

Kitty-Cornered.

Kitty-cornered, a corruption of *cater-cornered,* is itself Provincial English and also U. S. for *diagonal* or *set* diagonally. If used, however, *kitty-cornered* is the correct spelling.

Knights Templars.

The plural of *Knight Templars* is *Knights Templars,* each noun being made plural. See *Plurals.*

L.

Lady and Woman.

Standard gives the following:

"Lady, the feminine of *lord,* meaning, according to Max Müller, 'she who looks after the loaf,' the mistress, has always been a title of superiority, all ladies being *women* but not all *women* being *ladies.* In England, it is a title of rank; throughout the English-speaking world it signifies 'a refined or well-bred woman or one of superior social position,' and is used as a correlative of *gentleman.* Its use as indicating mere distinction of sex is a sheer vulgarism—not 'A man and a *lady*' but 'A man and a *woman,*' or 'A gentleman and a *lady.*' Not 'A man and his *lady*' but 'A man and his *wife.*' The entry in a hotel or steamship register, 'John Smith and *lady,*' may be a survival of older English usage; but except in such purely business registers, the proper form is 'John Smith and *wife*' or 'Mr. and *Mrs. John Smith.*' The good old-fashioned name *woman* best expresses the permanent and all-important relations of the female sex to the race and to the work of the world. The use of *lady* for *woman,* by those who wrongly suppose that the latter term is in some way derogatory, in cases where the distinction to be brought out is only one of sex, or of racial relations, and does not necessarily involve rank, character, or culture, is as objectionable as *salesgentleman* would be. Even in the drawing-room usage of the English aristocracy, where the word *lady,* in its use as a title, implies high rank or birth, *woman* is always preferred when at all permissible, and in literature, the indiscriminating use of *lady* is less common than formerly."

Last and Latest.

Last in one of its senses means *latest;* in consequence, one may say, "The *last* issue of the magazine," meaning the *latest* issue. Some speakers, however, prefer to use *latest* instead of *last,* as more closely expressing the meaning to be conveyed.

Last and Latter.

Notwithstanding that *last* is a superlative form, and so implies more than two in its reference, it is frequently used for only two persons or things, while *latter,* on the other hand, implying only two in its reference, is frequently used for more than two things. The tendency to restrict these words to their correct use is an effort in the right direction. The following extract from CORRECT ENGLISH is relevant: "While *latter* may be used of more than two things when it refers to that which is nearer to the close or to the present time, as, 'in these latter days,' it is applicable to two persons or things only when used in the sense of that which is in order of existence or of mention. In other words, *latter* is opposed to the word *former.*"

Last Two and First Two.

These forms (not *two last* or *two first*) express the meaning to be conveyed when more than two persons or things are meant.

Learn and Teach.

To learn is to acquire knowledge; *to teach* is *to convey* it; as, "He has finally *learned* the lesson that I have been trying *to teach* him."

Leave and Let.

The uses of *leave* and *let* are many, but those which occasion confusion are the following:

Leave 1.

To give leave to.

Let 1.

To give leave to.

Leave 1 and *let* 1 are interchangeable in meaning, but they differ in their requirements as to the construction of the context. Thus: *leave* 1 is followed by an infinitive with its sign, the preposition *to, expressed,* while *let* 1 is followed by an infinitive with its sign, the preposition *to, unexpressed;* as, "I shall *leave* you *to decide* the matter;" "I shall *let* you *decide* the matter."

Such expressions as "*Leave* me go" and "*Leave* me be," for "*Let* me go," and "*Let* me be" are always incorrect; for, inasmuch as *Leave* 1 (meaning *to give leave to*) is followed by the infinitive with the preposition *to, expressed,* and as the preposition cannot be employed in such constructions as, "*Leave* me go," "*Leave* me be," while it can be omitted before the infinitive after *let, let,* and not *leave* is the required form.

Leave 2.

To keep back or withdrawn from or *refrain from having to do with;* as, "*Leave* me alone." (Meaning, *do not annoy, touch,* or *molest* me, etc.)

Let 2.

To keep back or withdraw from or *refrain from having to do with;* as, *Let* me alone." (Meaning, *do not annoy, touch,* or *molest me,* etc.)

"*Leave* me *alone,*" meaning, *do not disturb, touch* or *molest me,* must not be confused with

the incorrect expression, "*Leave* me be." (See instructions given above.)

While *leave* and *let* when used with *alone* are interchangeable in the foregoing uses, there is a sense in which these words are not synonymous; thus: when the meaning is *to depart from the presence of another, leave,* and not, *let,* is required; as, "*Leave* me alone for a few minutes" (*depart from my presence*).

Left.

Such expressions as, "He *left* this morning," are in accordance with the everyday employment of the language. In strict usage, *left* takes a direct object; as, "He *left* the city this morning." Inasmuch as there is a growing tendency to use *left* absolutely, critics are less inclined than formerly to censure such constructions as, "He *left* this morning."

Lengthwise, Sidewise.

Lengthwise, sidewise, endwise, not *lengthways, sideways, endways,* are the correct forms.

Less and Fewer.

See *Fewer.*

Less and Least.

The comparative form *less,* not the superlative *least,* is required in comparing two persons or things; as, "Of two evils choose the *less.*"

Less and Lesser.

The comparative form is properly *less,* not *lesser;* as, "Of two evils choose the *less.*"

When used in the sense of *minor* or *inferior, lesser* is correct; as, "the *lesser* lights;" "the *lesser prophets.*"

Let's You and Me.

After *let,* the objective form *me* is required; as, "Let's (let us) you and *me* go," not "Let's you and *I* go."

Liable.

See *Apt.*

Libel and Slander.

Libel is written defamation; *slander* is spoken defamation.

Lie and Lay.

Lie means to rest; its principal parts are: Present *lie;* past *lay;* present participle *lying;* past participle *lain. Lay* means to cause to rest; its principal parts are: Present *lay;* past *laid;* present participle *laying;* past participle *laid.*

One properly says: "I am going to *lie* down;" "I was *lying* down when you called;" "I *lay* on the sofa last night;" "I had just *lain* down when you called;" "*Lay* the book down;" "He *laid* the book down;" "He was *laying* the book down as I came in;" "He had just *laid* the book down as I came in."

Such expressions as "*lay*-down collar" and "*lay* of the land" accord with the usage of the language.

Life and Lives.

The singular abstract noun *life* is used to express animate existence; the state or condition of being alive. The plural common noun *lives* is used to express corporeal existence; living beings; as: "*Life* is a mystery"; Many *lives* were lost." Frequently, the common plural noun *lives* is employed even when *life* would more properly express the idea; as, "They are

happy all their *lives''; life,* however, would be preferable in such cases.

Lighted and Lit.

''He *lighted* the gas'' is preferable to ''He *lit* the gas.''

Lightening and Lightning.

Lightening means *to relieve of a burden* or *weight; lightning* is a sudden flash of light.

Like and As.

See *As.*

Like and Love.

One properly uses *like* to express a preference; as, ''I *like* (not *love*) oranges.''

Liked.

Such provincialisms as, ''He *liked* to have fallen if I had not been there,'' or ''He *would liked,''* etc., are always incorrect. One properly says, ''He *would* (or *might*) have fallen if I had not been there.''

Likely.

See *Apt.*

Limited.

Limited is often faultily used for *small, slight,* and other words of like meaning; as, ''He had a *limited* (*slight*) acquaintance with Milton''; ''Sold at the *limited* (*low* or *reduced*) price of one dollar''; ''His pecuniary means are likely to remain quite *limited''*—admissible if suggesting the reverse of unlimited wealth, otherwise, *small* or narrow.—Standard.

Line.

Line used in the sense of *kind,* or *business,* or again in other senses where specific words

may be used to express the meaning, is not in accordance with the best employment of the language. Instead of saying, "In what *line* of business are you engaged" one properly says, "In what *business* are you engaged" or "What *kind* of work are you doing?" Again such expressions as, "He talked for several minutes along that *line,*" should be avoided. One should use specific language, as, "He talked for several minutes on that subject," or "in connection with that subject."

Lines.

Reins, not *lines,* is correct. Instead of "Give me the *lines,*" one properly says, "Give me the *reins.*"

Little and a Little.

When preceded by *a, little* denotes *some;* when used alone or precedeed by *but,* it means *not much.* (Compare with *Few* and *A few.*)

Livs or Liv.

Instead of saying, "I had as *livs* (or *liv*) go," one properly says, "I had as *lief* go," *had as lief* being the modern and idiomatic form of *had liefer.*

Live At.

See *At.*

Live On.

See *In* and *On.*

Loaned and Lent.

Lent and *lend,* not *loaned* and *loan,* are the correct forms. *Loan* is properly used only as a noun; thus, "I *lent* him (or I will *lend* him) the money"; "He asked me for a *loan.*"

The expression "Money to *loan*" is correct, *to loan* being properly a noun (verbal) with the preposition *for* understood but not expressed.

Located and Settled.

Located used in the sense of *settled* is colloquial. Instead of saying, 'He *has located* in New York," one properly says, "He has *settled* in New York."

Lonely and Solitary.

Lonely means *desolate, forsaken, lacking in companionship or sympathy. Solitary* means *alone.* A person may be *alone,* but not necessarily be *lonely.*

Look Badly.

"Look *bad,*" not "look *badly,*" is the required form, *look* being used in the sense of *seem* or appear, and hence, expressing inaction. See *Adjective* or *Adverb.*

Lots.

Lots in the sense of "a great deal" is incorrect. Instead of saying, "We have *lots* of time," one properly says, "We have a *great deal* of time."

Lovely.

Lovely is properly used only of that which is worthy of love; in consequence, it should not be used in such expressions as, "The dinner was *lovely;*" "I have a *lovely* gown."

Low-Priced.

Low-priced should not be used in the sense of *cheap.* An article is *low-priced* when but little money is asked or paid for it, and yet it may be *dear.* An article is *cheap* when the amount of

money asked or paid for it is small compared with its true worth.

Luncheon and Lunch.

Luncheon is the preferred form of the noun, *lunch* being properly restricted to express action; "*Luncheon* is ready;" "They *lunched* on crackers and cheese."

Luxuriant and Luxurious.

Luxuriant signifies *growth; luxurious, luxury;* as, "Her hair is *luxuriant;*" "Her surroundings are *luxurious.*"

M.

Mad.

Mad in the sense of *angry,* as "I am *mad* at him" for "I am *angry* with him," is not in accordance with the best usage of the language. One may say, however, in everyday usage, "He gets *mad* at trifles," this use of *mad* being less objectionable than when employed in connection with persons.

Madam and Miss.

In the salutation of a business letter, *Madam* is commonly employed for both married and unmarried women; but, inasmuch, as this form is recorded as being especially required when addressing married women, and elderly unmarried women, it would seem preferable to restrict the title to married women, and to omit the salutation when addressing unmarried women, except when the relations between the writer of the letter and the recipient are sufficiently cordial to admit of the salutation "Dear Miss Blank" or "My dear Miss Blank."

In an oral salutation to strangers, *Madam* must be used for both married and unmarried women, as *Miss* without the surname is always incorrect. The salutation "Dear Miss" without the name of the person thus addressed is always incorrect, whether oral or written.

Madame President; Madame Chairman.

Madame President and *Madame Chairman* are the required forms when addressing the president and the chairman of women's societies.

Majority.

The plural verb is used with majority in such constructions as: "The *majority have* decided to postpone the meeting." When used with the modifying adjective *numerical,* the singular verb is required.

Mail and Post.

One properly says either "I will *mail* the letter" or "I will *post* the letter."

Make An Experiment.

One properly says, "I will *make* an experiment," not "I will *try* an experiment," *try* being already implied in the word *experiment.*

Marine, Maritime, Naval, and Nautical.

Marine and *maritime* are from the Latin *mare,* meaning the *sea,* and signify *belonging to the sea; naval* is from the Latin *navis,* meaning a *ship,* and signifies *belonging to a ship; nautical* is from the Latin *nauta,* a *sailor,* and signifies *belonging to a sailor,* or to *navigation.*

Marry.

"She *married* a man named Brown," is incorrect, for the reason that a woman does not marry a man. A woman, when she weds, is married to a man, but the clergyman or magistrate marries her.

May and Can.

May expresses permission; *can,* denial; as, "May I go?" "Yes, you *may;*" "No; you can not." (See *Can* and *May.*)

When expressing ability *can* is generally employed, although *may* is sometimes used when *can* would be expected; as, "I will do this in order that you *may* go."

Century gives the following:

"*May.*—To have power; have ability; be able (in the sense of *can*). In the absolutely original use of *can,* it is now rare, being superseded by *can* except where a degree of contingency is involved, the notions of power, ability, permission, contingency, etc., passing into each other, and *may* in many constructions being purposely or inevitably used with more or less indefiniteness."

May and Might.

There is no essential difference between the uses of *may* and *might,* the words being employed according to the tense form required. Thus, the present tense form, "I *may* go if I can find some one to accompany me," becomes in the past tense, "I *might* go if I could find some one to accompany me;" "He *says* that I *may* go," becomes "He *said* that I *might* go."

(Correct English: A Complete Grammar, pp. 190-193 contains a comprehensive exposition of May and Might in their various uses.)

Me.

See *Case of Pronouns after the verb Be.*

Mean.

Mean, in the sense of *disobliging, unaccommodating,* is not in accordance with the best usage of the language.

Means.

For singular and plural use, see *Concord of Subject and Verb.*

Meant To Write.

See *Concord of Infinitive With the Principal Verb.*

Merely, Simply.

Merely is used to indicate that no *addition* is to be made; *simply* implies the lack of complications; as "I asked him *merely* to show me the way" (not to take me); "It is *simply* impossible for me to go."

Messrs.

In this country, *Messrs.* is properly used only when it precedes firm names ending with "& Co.," *Messrs.* not being required when "&" is omitted; thus:

Peck & Hills Furniture Company,
Chicago, Ill.
Gentlemen:

Messrs. Lyon & Healy,
Chicago, Ill.
Gentlemen:

Meet your Approval.

One may say with equal propriety, "If this *meets* your approval" or "If this *meets with* your approval."

Middling.

Middling, used adverbially in such sentences as, "This is a *middling* good year for peaches," is not in accordance with the best usage of the language.

Midst.

See In our *midst.*

Mighty.

The use of *mighty* in the sense of *very* is in accordance with the every-day employment of the language, as, "I have had a *mighty* hard time." Many speakers prefer to use *very,* restricting *mighty* to express power, as, "He was a *mighty* man intellectually."

Mistaken.

See *I am not mistaken.*

Mitigate, Alleviate, Remove.

Mitigate and *Alleviate,* in the sense of *to make lighter,* are interchangeably used, but *alleviate* is the stronger word, *mitigate* being the weakest of the three words, *mitigate, alleviate, remove.*

Standard gives the following (B to T, p. 144):

"Etymologically, to *alleviate* is to lift a burden toward oneself, and so *lighten* it for the bearer; to *relieve* is to lift it back from the bearer, nearly or quite away; to *remove* is to take it away altogether. *Alleviate* is thus less than *relieve; relieve,* ordinarily, less than *remove.* We *alleviate, relieve* or *remove* the trouble; we *relieve,* not *alleviate,* the sufferer. *Assuage* is by derivation, to sweeten; *mitigate,* to make mild; *moderate,* to bring within measure; *abate,* to beat down, and so make less. We

abate a fever; *lessen* anxiety; *moderate* passions or desires; *lighten* burdens; *mitigate* or *alleviate* pain; *reduce* inflammation; *soften, assuage,* or *moderate* grief; we *lighten* or *mitigate* punishments; we *relieve* any suffering of body or mind that admits of help, comfort, or remedy. *Alleviate* has been often confused with *ally.*"

Moments and Minutes.

A *moment* is not a *minute.* A *moment* is a space of time incalculably or indefinitely small; a *minute* is the sixtieth part of an hour. One may say either, "I will come in a few *moments,*" or, "I will come in a few *minutes,*" but in exact language the expressions are not identical in meaning.

Money.

The correct plural of *money* is *moneys.* The plural is sometimes written *monies,* but this variant spelling is not in conformity with the rule. Nouns that end in "y" preceded by a vowel, form the plural by adding "s;" nouns that end in "y" preceded by a consonant, form the plural by changing "y" to "i" and adding "es;" thus: *money, moneys; lady, ladies.*

Monetary.

See *Financial, Monetary, Pecuniary.*

More than I can help.

See *Help.*

More and Most.

More is properly used when comparing two persons or things; *most* when comparing more than two; as, "This is the *more* interesting book of the *two;*" "This is the *most* interesting of the *three.*"

More strictly correct.

More is superfluous in the expression, "*More* strictly correct;" *strictly* is also superfluous, but may be occasionally used for emphasis.

More than probable.

"More than probable" is an emphatic phrase to denote that which is almost sure to happen. It is a stronger expression than *probable,* which indicates that which is likely to happen.

Mornings and Evenings.

One properly says: "I study *in the morning,*" "I study *in the evening,*" not "I study *mornings,*" "I study *evenings.*" See *Evenings.*

Most.

Most should never be used for *almost.* Instead of saying, "My work is *most* finished," one properly says, "My work is *almost* finished."

Most Perfect, Most Complete, Most Thorough.

These forms are gradually becoming adopted, even by good speakers and writers, instead of the expressions *more nearly perfect; more nearly complete,* etc.

Mrs. Dr. Blank.

The use of the husband's professional title is always objectionable, and should, under no circumstances be employed. The wife of Dr. J. Blank is Mrs. J. Blank.

Mutual Friend.

As the expression "*common* friend," suggested by some authorities, is objectionable because of the broad application of *common,* "*mutual* friend" should be restored to favor.

Common, however, is generally suggested as being the required form.

Myself.

The compound personal pronouns *myself, yourself, herself, himself* (never *hiself* or *hisself*) are correctly used only in a reflexive or an emphatic sense; as, "I hurt *myself;*" "He hurt *himself* (reflexive);" "I *myself* said so" or "I said so *myself*" (emphatic). Such expressions as, "This is for *myself,*" "I send love to your mother and *yourself*" are always incorrect, for the reason that the compound personal pronoun is properly used reflexively, only when the object (direct or indirect) refers to the same person as the subject. The following are correct:

"I have only *myself* to thank" (reflexive).

"I bought this hat for *myself*" (reflexive,—the object is indirect.)

"I bought this hat *myself*" (emphatic).

"You *yourself* said so" (emphatic).

My Going.

Such expressions as, "There is no use of *me* going" (*you, him, us, them* going), are always incorrect, the possessive case being required before the verbal noun; as, "There is no use of *my* going" (*your, his, our, their* going").

N.

Name for and Name after.

We say, "The child was *named for* his uncle" or "The child was *named after* his uncle;" but *for* and *after* have somewhat variant meanings, *for* being used in the sense of "in honor of;" *after,* "in imitation of."

Near-by.

Near-by, used as an adjective, as "A *near-by* house," is not in accordance with the best usage of the language. *Near by,* used adverbially is correct; as, "A man that stood *near by* gave the signal."

Need and Needs; Dare and Dares.

Need, in the sense of that which is obligatory, is commonly and properly used in the third person singular without the terminal "s;" as: "He *need* not go;" "*Need* he go?" When used to express *want, needs* is *always* the required form; as, "He *needs* a new coat." *Dare* is also so used; as, "He *dare* not go," "*Dare* he go?"

The use of the preposition *to* after both *need* and *dare* is optional in many instances, but if employed, the terminal "s" is always required; as: "He *needs* to take warning," "He *dares* to go."

Need must and Needs must.

When used adverbially, *needs,* not *need,* is required; as, "He *needs* must go," not "He *need* must go."

Neither, Either, None, Any One.

As a conjunction used correlatively with *nor* and *or,* respectively, *neither* and *either* are properly used of more than two persons or things. When used as a pronoun or an adjective, *neither* and *either* are properly used only of two persons or things. When it is necessary to refer to more than two persons or things, *none* and *any one* are the required forms; thus: (conjunction) "*Neither* John, James, nor Henry is going;" "*Either* John,

James, or Henry is going;" (Pronoun) "*Neither* of the boys is going;" "*Either* of the boys can go." (Adjective) "*Neither* boy (or *Neither one* of the boys) is going;" "*Either* boy (or *Either one* of the boys) can go;" (Reference to more than two) "*None* of the boys are going;" "*Any one* of the boys will go."

In connection with the use of *any,* note the following:

Any may be used with either a singular or a plural noun. When used with a singular noun, it generally implies quantity; with a plural noun, number; as, "Is there *any* sugar?" Are there *any* apples?"

Neither nor; Either or.

Neither is properly followed by *nor; either,* by *or.* For singular and plural use, see *Concord of subject and verb.*

Neither . . . nor; Either . . . or.

Correlatives must precede the same parts of speech; as, "He will see *neither* him *nor* me," not "He will *neither* see," etc.; "He will see *either* him *or* me," *not* "He will *either* see," etc.

Never so.

See *Ever so.*

Never Remember.

Instead of "I *never* remember," one properly says, "I *do not* remember ever," as, for example, "I do *not* remember *ever* to have seen him."

New Beginner.

New is superfluous in the expression, "A *new* beginner."

Nice.

Although the use of *nice* in the sense of that which is pleasing and agreeable is commonly censured, there is a growing tendency even among good speakers so to use this word, as it is sometimes difficult to find a suitable synonym. In exact usage, *nice* means *carefully chosen; characterised by accuracy;* as, "A *nice* discrimination in the use of words."

Nicely.

Nicely in the sense of *well* or *very well;* as, "He is *doing* nicely," is incorrect.

No . . . but.

No should not be used as a correlative to *but, not* being the required word; thus: instead of "*No* criticism was made on account of the delay *but* on account of his indifference in the matter," one properly says, "Criticism was made, *not* on account of," etc.

Noblesse oblige.

Noblesse oblige (pronounced No-bles oblezh; *o* as in *no; e* in *bles* like *e* in *end; e* in *blezh* like *e* in *eel,* accent on the second syllable) means literally, "nobility obliges;" that is, noble birth imposes the obligation to act nobly.

Nobody else's.

"Nobody else's," not "Nobody's else."

See *Anybody else's.*

Nobody else than.

See *Else* and *But.*

No doubt but that.

Instead of "I have *no doubt but that* he will

come," one properly says, "I have *no doubt that* he will come," *but* being superfluous.

No good.

Such expressions as, "This is *no good;*" "He is *no good*" are incorrect. One properly says: "This is *worthless;*" "He is of *no account.*"

No other and None other.

No other, not *none other,* is the correct form; as, "It was *no other* than he," not "It was *none other* than he."

(Note that *than,* not *but,* is required after *other* and *else, but* being used in the absence of these words.) See *Else* and *But.*

No use.

No use must be preceded by *of* in sentences introduced by *it;* as, "It is *of no use* for you to go." When preceded by *there, of* is omitted, as "There is no use in your going."

Nowhere near.

Nowhere near in the sense of *not nearly* is incorrect. Instead of "He is not worth *nowhere near* as much as we think," one properly says, "He is not worth *nearly* so much," etc.

None.

No one is the required form to express the singular in such cases as "No one (not *one*) called during the day;" *none* is used where the reference is plural; as, "Several called but *none* remained;" "*None* of the children were absent."

Nor or Or.

For use of negative after *nor* or *or,* see *Or* or *Nor.*

Not.

For use of negative after *not,* see *Or* or *Nor.*

Not . . but; Not merely . . but.

The correlatives *not . . but* and *not merely . . but,* must precede the parts of speech; thus: "It is my aim, *not* to criticize, *but* to assist you;" not "It is *not* my aim," etc.; "This is intended, *not merely* to interest people, *but* to instruct them;" not "This is *not merely* intended," etc.

Noted and Notorious.

A nice usage of *noted* and *notorious* restricts the former to mean that which is favorably brought into prominence; the latter to mean that which is unfavorably made prominent.

Not all.

Instead of "*All* is *not* lost," one properly says, "*Not all* is lost."

Not at all.

"Not at all" is the correct response to "I am much obliged," the obligation being thus dismissed. "You are welcome" is properly used in acknowledging an expression of thanks.

Not only . . . . But also.

Correlatives must precede the same part of speech; as, "He visited *not only* New York but also Boston," not "*He not only* visited," etc.

Not so.

One properly says "He is *not so* tall as I" not "He is *not as* tall as I," so, and not *as,* being required after a negative.

NOUNS.

For singular, plural, and collective nouns, see *Concord of Subject and Verb.*

Nothing like.

Nothing like is incorrectly used in the sense of *not nearly.* Instead of "She is *nothing like* so good a singer as her sister," say "She is not *nearly so* good," etc. *Nothing like* is properly used in such constructions as, "There is *nothing like* being good."

Nominative Case.

See *Case of Pronouns after the verb "Be."*

Number of nouns and verbs.

For use of singular and plural number in special constructions, see *Concord of Subject and Verb.*

Number.

For singular and plural use of the word *number,* see *Concord of Subject and Verb.*

O.

O and Oh.

O is used in direct address; as, *"O* Mary! How delightful!" *Oh* is used to express emotion; as, *"Oh!* Why did you do it?"

Observe the following rules in regard to the punctuation of *O* and *Oh:*

O is not immediately followed by an exclamation point, but *oh,* is so followed except where the emotion runs through the whole expression; in which case, *oh* is followed by a comma, and the entire emotional expression, by an exclamation point.

O home, magical, all powerful home!
O Absalom! O God! O my child!
Oh, how glad I am!

Oh! Where did you find it?

O is capitalized only when it begins a sentence; as, "*Oh!* You have found my knife; but *oh,* you have cut your hand with it!"

When a sentence is both exclamatory and interrogative, that point should be used which is demanded by the construction. Thus, if the construction partakes more especially of the nature of an exclamation, the exclamation point should be used; as, "Oh, where can rest be found!"

If, however, the sentence requires an answer, the exclamation point can be placed immediately after the interjection, and the interrogation point can be placed at the close of the sentence; as, "Oh! where has he gone?"

O. K.

The origin of "O. K." is obscure, but it is said to have originated with Andrew Jackson, who used it as an abbreviation of "All Korrect."

Usage varies in the writing of the past and participle forms of O. K. Thus, *O. K.d* or *O. K'd.; O. K.ing;* or *O. K'ing.* Of course, grammatically considered, there is really no past or perfect tense form of O. K. except as usage has established it. As to whether O. Kd. and O. King could be regarded as correct, there is no like abbreviation upon which one may base a decision. It would seem that either O.K.d or O.K'd.; O.K.ing or O.K'ing would be correct abbreviations.

Objective case after the verb "Be."

See *Case after the verb "Be."*

Observance and Observation.

A nice use of *observance* and *observation* restricts the former to indicate that which is held sacred; the latter, that which is carefully noted; as, "His strict *observance* of the Sabbath day was such as to excite comment;" "This fact had not come under my *observation.*"

Occupancy and Occupation.

Occupancy means to take possession. *Occupation* implies the right to occupancy. It has still another meaning, namely, that of employment.

Of age.

One properly says: "He was a child *of three years,*" "The child was three *years of age,*" or "The child was *three years old,*" but not "He was a child *of three years old.*"

Of any.

See *All* and *Any.*

Of the name of.

See *By the name of.*

Of the time.

As applied to time, *of* is the required preposition.

Century gives the following:

Of.—Measuring time; noting *relative position in space or time.*

Under *to,* Century says that *to* is found in various *obsolete, provincial,* and *colloquial* uses instead of the correct preposition *after, against, . . . of,* etc.; as, "At twenty minutes *to* three, Her Majesty . . . entered the House."

Of Which and Whose.

Although *whose,* used of inanimate things, has been censured by some critics, it has become established as correct. Standard gives the following:

"The use of *whose,* the possessive of *who,* in place of the phrase *of which,* is now considered good style; thus: instead of 'Poetry, the chief purpose *of which* is to exalt the beautiful,' we can correctly say, 'Poetry, *whose* chief purpose,' " etc.

Off of.

Of is superfluous after *off*. Instead of "Cut a slice *off of* the bread," one properly says, "Cut a slice *off* the bread."

Official and Officer.

An *official* is defined as one holding a public office; an *officer,* as one holding office by election, especially under the government; thus, we speak of a railroad *official* and a police *officer.*

Older and Oldest.

See *Elder* and *Eldest.*

On.

On should not be omitted in such constructions as, "He called *on* Monday."

On a street.

See *In* a street.

On and Upon.

See *Call on.*

Onto and on to.

Onto and *on to* have both been criticised by purists, *onto* being characterized as a vulgarism and *on to* as containing a superfluous word (*to*).

Onto (analogous in form to *into* and *unto*) and *on to* are suggested by some authorities as having the right to some consideration where *to* is not utterly superfluous, as when motion is indicated as coming from above, the example, "The boy fell *on* the roof" being given as expressing a different meaning from "The boy fell *on to* or *onto* the roof." It may be difficult to establish *onto* because of the severe criticism to which it has been subjected; but there seems no legitimate reason why *on to* should not be used in cases where *to* can be shown not to be redundant.

One.

After *one, one* or *one's,* as the case may require, is preferably used to *he* or *his;* as, "When *one* has decided upon *one's* career, *one,*" etc. In the case of extended statements, where the excessive repetition of *one* would sound pedantic, an antecedent noun, like *person, student,* and the like, may be used. The noun is then properly followed by *he* or *his.* The compound pronouns *any one, some one,* etc., are followed by *he* or *his,* as the construction may require.

In this connection, note that the plural reference is always incorrect; thus: instead of "Every one knows *their* own affairs best," one properly says, "Every one knows *his,*" etc.

See *Any one.*

Note, too, that the pronoun *you* should not be substituted for *one,* as its use is confusing. For example, the wording, "When *you* have made an error, *you* dislike to be told of it," does not express the meaning conveyed as does the impersonal pronoun *one.* In literature, where a conversational style is employed, and where

the meaning cannot be mistaken, the pronoun *you* is sometimes employed to advantage.

One of those which have or has.

See *Antecedent of Relative Pronoun.*

One another and each other.

See *Each other.*

One or two is or are going.

"One or two *are* going," is the correct form, this being in accordance with the rule: When the conjunction *or* or *nor* connects two nouns of which one is singular and the other plural, the plural verb is required and the plural noun must immediately precede it.

See *Concord of Subject and Verb.*

Only.

Only should generally precede the word, phrase, or clause, that it modifies; as, "I saw him *only* for a few moments;" "I *only* saw him" means "I *saw* him; but did not speak to him." When no ambiguity can arise, *only* may sometimes follow the word that it modifies as in the sentence, "I shall call attention to this matter *only.*"

Or or Nor after a negative.

Nor is always required after *neither,* but not always after other negatives. The following rule applies to the correct uses of these words:

Rule.—When the additional expression merely *amplifies* the subject, *or* is correctly used. When it is an important *alternative, nor* is required, thus:

He has *no* money *nor* credit. (*Credit* is used

as an important alternative; an additional resource.)

He has *no* money *or* credit. (*Credit* is regarded as an equivalent of *money,* and serves merely to amplify the expression.)

In the following sentences, the expression introduced by *or* serves merely to amplify the expression:

He has *no* will *or* disposition to assist her.

He has *no* friend *or* acquaintance in the city.

He has *not* a friend *or* acquaintance in the city (second word is regarded as, in a sense, a synonym of the first).

There is *no* coal *or* wood in the house.

In the following sentences, the expression introduced by *nor* is used as an important alternative:

He has *no* will *nor* disposition to assist her.

He has *no* friend *nor* acquaintance in the city.

He has *not a* friend *nor an* acquaintance in the city (second word is regarded as an important alternative).

There is *no* coal *nor* wood in the house.

While the use of *or* or *nor* after *no* seems to admit of much laxity, there should not be much difficulty in discriminating between the uses of *or* and *nor* after *not,* for the reason that when the additional expression is regarded as a synonym of the first, the *article* should not be repeated. Thus, one would say, "He has *not* the will *or* disposition to assist her," but, "He has *not* the will *nor* the disposition to assist her."

Note also in this connection, that when in the place of *no, neither* can be substituted, it is always safe to use *nor.* Thus, in the sentence, "There is *no* coal *or* wood in the house," mean-

ing there is no fuel of any kind, that is, there is neither coal *nor* wood, then it is safe to use *nor*. If on the other hand it is not the intention of the speaker to emphasize the idea that there is no fuel of any kind, then it is safe to use the form, "There is *no* coal *or* wood."

Oral and Verbal.

Oral pertains to that which is spoken, not written; *verbal,* to that which is conveyed by written or printed words.

Ordinance and Ordnance.

An *ordinance* is a regulation ordained by authority; as, "A municipal *ordinance.*" *Ordnance* is artillery; cannon or large guns, thought of collectively.

Other than.

See *But* and *Else.*

Other.

Other is required after comparatives, as, "New York is larger than *any other* city in the United States."

See *All* and *Any.*

Other Alternative.

Instead of "There is no *other* alternative," one properly says, "There is no alternative," *other* being superfluous.

Ought and Should.

Ought is nicely used to express moral obligation; *should,* to express propriety; as, "You *ought* to obey your parents;" "You *should* dress more becomingly." In connection with the use of these words, note that *ought* is always followed by *to,* and that *should* is not so followed.

Ought used with *had* or *hadn't,* as "You *hadn't ought* to go," is very objectionable.

Our mind or our minds.

See *Mind.*

Ourselves.

See *Myself.*

Outside of.

When used as a preposition, *of* is omitted after *outside;* thus, we say, "He went *outside* the house," corresponding with the wording, "He went *inside* the house." When used as a noun, *of* is required; as, "The blinds are on the *outside of* the house."

Over and More Than.

Instead of "He has written *over* fifty letters," "He has written *more than* fifty letters," is suggested by some authorities as preferable; others do not make this distinction.

Over and Above.

Century gives the following: "*Over, Above. Above* expresses greater elevation, but not necessarily in or near a perpendicular direction; *over* expresses perpendicularity or something near it: thus, one cloud may be *above* another, without being *over* it. *Over* often implies motion or extension where *above* would not; hence the difference in sense of the flying of a bird *over* or *above* a house, the hanging of a branch *over* or *above* a wall. In such uses *over* seems to represent greater nearness."

Over and Across.

Although censured by some critics, *over* is recorded as properly used in the sense of *across,*

meaning to pass from side to side of or over the surface of; as, "To sail *over* the river." Some authorities favor *across* in such uses as, "He went *across* the bridge."

Over with.

With is superfluous in the sentence, "The trouble was *over with* when I arrived."

Overly.

The use of *overly* in the sense of *very* or *over* is not in accordance with the best usage of the language. Instead of saying, "I am not *overly* anxious about him," one properly says, "I am not *very* (or *over-anxious*) about him.

Own up.

Own up in the sense of *to confess* is censured by some critics, but the expression may be used in every-day speech.

P.

Pains.

For singular and plural use, see *Concord of Subject and Verb.*

Pair.

For singular and plural use, see *Concord of Subject and Verb.*

Pair of New Glasses or New Pair of Glasses.

While constructions like "a new pair of glasses" or "a new pair of gloves" are criticised by some authorities, the connection in thought is so close that the wording should hardly be censured.

Parenthesis.

Parenthesis applies to one set of brackets (one at the beginning of the included matter and

one at the close). *Parentheses* is the plural of *parenthesis* and applies to two or more sets. "Place this in *parenthesis,*" is the correct wording to indicate that the matter is to be included in one set of brackets.

Party.

Party should not be used in the sense of *person.* Instead of saying, "I know a *party* who will lend you the money," one properly says, "I know a *person* who will lend you the money."

Party is properly used as a legal term or to indicate a number of persons; as, for example, in the wording, "The *party* of the first part"; "Our *party* will sail next week."

Pardon me and Excuse me.

See *Excuse me.*

Part and Portion.

While *portion* is often used in the sense of *part,* it is better to restrict *part* to mean a section or a division, and *portion* to mean an allotment; as, "A *part* of the orange is bad"; "He gave an equal *portion* of the orange to each child."

For the use of the singular and the plural verb with *part,* see *Concord of Subject and Verb.*

PAST AND PERFECT TENSES.

See *Tenses.*

Past and Last.

Past and *last,* meaning *belonging to a time gone by,* are interchangeably used; as, "the *past* few months;" "the *last* few months."

Passed and Spent.

Passed and *spent* are interchangeably used in

such sentences as, "I have *passed* (or *spent*) a most delightful summer."

People and Persons.

The use of *people* is incorrect in speaking of a small number of *persons*. *People* is used primarily of a body of *persons* who compose a community, tribe, or nation; as, "The *people* of the United States;" "The *people* of Israel." While it may be also used of *persons,* as, "The young *people* of the church," "the room was full of *people,*" it should not be used of a very small number: thus: instead of saying, "There were only a few *people* present," one properly says, "There were only a few *persons* present."

Per cent.

Per cent. is singular or plural according to the context; as, "Twenty *per cent.* is a high commission; "Twenty *per cent.* of the immigrants were Germans." *Per cent.,* being an abbreviation of *per centum,* is followed by a period.

Perfect.

See *Most perfect;* also *Full.*

Permit.

See *Allow.*

Perspicacity and Perspicuity.

Perspicacity means *acuteness, penetration; perspicuity* means *clearness of expression, lucidity* as applied to speech or writing.

Persuade and Convince.

To *persuade* a person is to lead him to an opinion; to *convince* him is to make him believe by force of argument.

Pertaining and Appertaining.

Pertaining and *appertaining* are interchangeable in meaning.

Per Year; Per Secretary.

Per is a Latin preposition, and is properly joined only with Latin words; as, *per annum, per diem,* not *per year,* or *per day.* The forms *per invoice, per letter,* however, have the sanction of commercial employment. Instead of saying, "The magazine is one dollar *per year,* or ten cents *per copy,*" one properly says, "The magazine is one dollar *a* year, or ten cents *a* copy." Again, instead of the signature "*Per* Secretary," one properly writes "*By* Secretary."

Pleasure and Happiness.

As applied to feeling, *pleasure* is distinguished from *happiness,* in that pleasure is a sensation of gratification resulting from an act; *happiness* is a general state or condition that one is in as a result of one's adaptation of circumstances to desire. According to one writer's exposition of what constitutes happiness, it consists in an excess of pleasure over pain.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS, POSITION OF.*

When two or more personal pronouns in the singular number are connected by "and," the second person precedes the first and the third, and the third person precedes the first; when the pronouns are used together in the plural number, the first person precedes the second and the third, and the second person precedes the third.

*Correct English: A Complete Grammar.

SINGULAR NUMBER.

You and *I* are going.
You and *he* are going.
You and *he* and *I* are going.
He and *I* are going.
You and *your* sister are both in the wrong.
He and *his* brother are in the office.

PLURAL NUMBER.

We and *you* are going.
We and *they* are going.
We and *you* and *they* are going.
You and *they* are going.
We and *you* do not agree.
We and *they* formerly lived in the same city.
You and *they* have been invited.

(b) In the conclusion of social letters, the same rules should be observed; thus:

CORRECT.

Hoping to have the pleasure of seeing *you* and *your sister* on Monday, I am, etc.

INCORRECT.

Hoping to have the pleasure of seeing *your sister* and *you* on Monday, I am, etc.

NOTE.—In the case of personal pronouns connected by *or* or *nor,* some grammarians regard these pronouns as interchangeable in position; others, as being governed by special rules; but no distinction need be made in the case of pronouns connected by "or" from that of pronouns connected by "and." (For construction of the verb following a compound subject connected by *or* or *nor,* see *Concord of Subject and Verb.*)

Place.

See *Any place.*

PLURAL NOUNS.*

Proper nouns form their plurals in the regular way, namely, by adding "s" and "es" to the singular.

SINGULAR.	("s") PLURAL.
George	The Georges
Mary	The two Marys
Palmer	The Palmers
Butler	The Butlers

SINGULAR.	("es") PLURAL.
Charles	The Charleses
Jones	The Joneses
Bellows	The Bellowses.
Griggs	The Griggses.

The following specific rules govern the formation of the plural of some proper nouns:

(*a*) When a proper noun is preceded by a title, the plural termination may be added either to the title or to both the title and the noun.

SINGULAR.

Miss Brown.

PLURAL.

The Misses Brown or The Miss Browns.

Although one may refer to the Miss Browns in conversation, one should address them in a letter as "Misses Brown."

(*b*) When a numeral precedes the title, only the name is made plural:

* CORRECT ENGLISH: A COMPLETE GRAMMAR.

The two Miss Browns; The two Mrs. Browns; The two Dr. Smiths.

(*c*) When the Christian name is given, the following forms are used:

The Misses Jane and Mary Brown, or Miss Jane and Miss Mary Brown.

In the case of two or more young ladies who are members of the same family, the eldest daughter is called "Miss Brown," while the other daughters are referred to as "Miss Mary" or "Miss Jane," as the case may require.

(*d*) When the title refers to several names, frequently only the title is made plural:

Those present were: Mesdames Jones, Brown, Wilkins, and Grey; Messrs. Black, White, and Grey; Drs. Adams, Smith, and Anderson.

Point of View, Viewpoint, and Standpoint.

Point of view is regarded as preferable to *viewpoint* by some authorities. As to *standpoint,* Standard gives the following:

"*Standpoint.* Irregularly formed—probably in imitation of the German *standpunki*—and sometimes inconsiderately censured as being a superfluous substitute for *point of view.* That *standpoint* and *point of view* are not always interchangeable will be evident when the fact is recalled that in literary usage, *point of view* has two different senses: (1) The point from which one views; (2) the point or relative place at which something is viewed, giving rise to the two phrases, 'From this *point of view*' and 'In this *point of view.*' Furthermore, there is in *standpoint,* as commonly employed, an implication of some permanence of position, as regards the view taken or the opinion held; it is especially applicable to principle, convictions, etc.,

as determining views. No such implication of permanence attaches to *point of view.* Lincoln and Douglas argued, in their celebrated debate, from different *standpoints;* at times each, for the purposes of argument, took the other's *point of view. Standpoint,* therefore, besides being convenient as a single word, conveys a suggestion not carried by *point of view,* and, though it is less regular in formation than *standingpoint,* its irregularity is not wholly anomalous.

Politics.

Politics is properly followed by a singular verb.

P. M. and p. m.

See *A. M.*

POSSESSIVE CASE.*

The *possessive* case of a noun is that form of a noun by which the relation of ownership is expressed.

General Rule. The *possessive* case of both singular and plural nouns is formed by adding to the noun the apostrophe (') and the letter "s."

Ex.—Singular 1. *Boy's* hat. 2. *Girl's* dress. 3. *Child's* gloves. Plural 1. *Women's* gloves. 2. *Men's* coats. 3. *Children's* dresses.

(*a*) When either the singular or the plural noun ends in "s," possession is indicated by adding the apostrophe, as: "Burns' Poems;" "Charles' Reign;" "ladies' suits;" "The Ruggleses' Christmas Dinner."

Note.—In the case of singular nouns, it is also correct to add the apostrophe and the letter *s;*

* CORRECT ENGLISH: A COMPLETE GRAMMAR, p. 36.

thus, we may write either Burns' Poems, or Burns's Poems. If, however, *s* is added with the apostrophe, then the resulting sound of *es* is pronounced.

(*c*) When the resulting sound is not euphonious, only the apostrophe should be used; as, "for conscience' sake;" "for Jesus' sake." In connection with the use of the letter "*s*" as well as that of the apostrophe, note that if "s" is not used, the word is pronounced without the additional sound of "es;" thus, "Burns'" would be pronounced as it is spelled, while "Burns's" would be pronounced "Burnses."

(*d*) When two or more nouns are used so that joint possession is indicated, the sign of the possessive is added to the last word only; thus, "A. C. McClurg & Co.'s Book Store;" "Marshall Field & Co.'s Dry Goods Store."

Note.—We say correctly, "William, Mary, and John's uncle," but not "William's, Mary's, and John's uncle."

(*e*) When possession is not common to both nouns, the possessive sign must be used with each noun; thus, we say correctly, "*Keats'* and *Shelley's* poems."

Note the following constructions:

"John and Mary's bicycle" (one bicycle owned jointly by John and Mary). "John's and Mary's bicycle" (one bicycle owned by John, and one by Mary). "John and Mary's bicycles" (two or more bicycles owned jointly by John and Mary). "John's and Mary's bicycles" (two or more bicycles owned by John, and two or more bicycles owned by Mary).

(*f*) In the case of compound nouns, the sign

of the possessive is added to the last word only; thus, "An *heir-at-law's* rights," "My *father-in-law's* sister."

(*g*) In the case of nouns in apposition, possession may be indicated in various ways; thus, it is correct to say, "I bought the book at Thompson the bookseller's," or "I bought the book at Thompson's, the bookseller," or "I bought the book at Thompson's, the bookseller's."

Note.—If the first noun does not indicate possession, the comma is omitted before the appositive word; thus, in the first sentence, the comma is omitted before the appositive word "booksellers," for the reason that the nouns are regarded for the time being as the equivalent of singular nouns.

Authorities differ as to the correctness of these forms; some giving precedence to the first and the third, others to the second and the third.

In such constructions as "My sister Mary's servant;" "My Uncle John's horse;" "My brother Will's carriage," possession is indicated only by the appositive noun, for the reason that the two nouns are regarded as a single noun.

In the case of pronouns, the rule governing joint possession does not apply; thus, instead of "*You* and Black's contract," one properly says, "*Your* and Black's contract."

Another variation from the established rule is seen in the wording *whose else;* in the wording *any one else's, some one else's,* etc., possession is indicated by the second word.

The following sentences illustrate the foregoing rules:

POSSESSIVE PROPER NOUNS.

Mrs. *Shaw's* home is in Toronto.
The *Lyttons'* house is for rent.
The *Palmers'* car is at the door.
The *Bishops'* house has been sold.
The *Cummingses'* reception was a delightful one.
The *Burgesses'* house is for rent.
The *Knoxes'* lot adjoins ours.
I bought the books at *A. C. McClurg & Co.'s.* bookstore.
I bought the music at *Lyon & Healy's.*
I have been at my brother *Dr. John Blank's sanatorium.*
My sister *Julia's* children are ill.
My brother *Frank's* house has been sold.
King George's and *Queen Victoria's* reign were notable ones.

POSSESSIVE COMMON NOUNS.

The *boy's* coat is torn.
The *boys'* coats are torn.
The *baby's* rattle is lost.
The *babies'* rattles are lost.
A two *weeks'* vacation is all that I ask.
I wish two *months'* time on this note.
I will give it a three *months'* trial.
He took a two *years'* lease of the house.

POSSESSIVE CASE BEFORE THE GERUND

See *"My going."*

Possessives.

This is a photograph *of* my uncle.
She is a servant of my *aunt's.*
See *Double Possessives.*

Post or Mail.

Post and *mail* are interchangeably used in the wording, "*Post* (or *mail*) a letter."

Posted.

Although *posted* is frequently used in colloquial speech, in the sense of *informed,* it is an undesirable form of expression. Instead of saying, "He is very well *posted* on such matters," one properly says, "He is very well *informed,*" etc.

Practical and Practicable.

1. PRACTICABLE AND PRACTICAL.—*Practicable* means *feasible; practical* means *capable of being put into practice;* as, "The plan is not *practicable;*" "He has no *practical* knowledge of any kind."

Century gives the following:

"*Practical.*—1. Of a thing: used of that which is dictated by or in harmony with the lessons of experience; capable of being used or turned to account; as, *practical* skill; *practical* knowledge.

2. Of a person: used of one who shows worldly wisdom, or knowledge gained by experience; as, a *practical* housekeeper; a *practical* gardener.

Practicable.—1. Of a thing: used of that which may be accomplished without expense or sacrifice greater than is advisable; as, a *practicable* scheme or plan.

2. Of a person: used of one who is easily managed; one who is of service; as, a *practicable* person to manage affairs.

EXAMPLES.

Practical: opposed to *theoretical, speculative* or *ideal.*

'His *practical* knowledge of the business enabled him to discharge all his duties to the entire satisfaction of his employer.'

'His *practical* judgment enabled him to determine what to do under the circumstances.'

'They engaged a *practical* manager who took entire charge of the affair.'

'These garments are not *practicable* for this time of the year.'

'He was not a *practicable* person for the situation.' ''

Precise and Exact.

Precise and *exact,* in the sense of conforming to a standard sharply and clearly determined, are largely interchangeable in meaning. We speak of a *precise* or an *exact* statement; but *precise,* not *exact,* manners; *precise,* in the latter sense, meaning scrupulously observant of rules.

PREPOSITION, REPETITION OF.

Rule.—The preposition should be repeated after an intervening conjunction, unless the word that follows the conjunction merely amplifies the thought expressed by the word that precedes the conjunction.

The repetition of the preposition is especially required if the intervening conjunction is preceded and followed by a verb in the infinitive mode and its object.

In the following sentences, the repetition of the preposition is required:

This was the cause *of* his failure in business and *of* the estrangement of his friends.

It was his custom *to* go to town in the morning, and *to* return in the evening.

In the following sentences, the repetition of the preposition is not required:

He likes *to* run and play.
He is learning *to* read and write.

INCORRECT.

He is unable either *to do* the work himself or *get* others to do it for him.

I am delighted *to find* her unchanged, and *learn* that she has still the same friendly feelings as before.

We are apt *to overlook* a person's good qualities and *remember* only his faults.

He hopes *to master* the subject of Grammar in a few months, and then *take* a course in Rhetoric.

CORRECT.

He is unable either *to do* the work himself or *to get* others to do it for him.

I am delighted *to find* her unchanged, and *to learn* that she has still the same friendly feelings as before.

We are apt *to overlook* a person's good qualities and *to remember* only his faults.

He hopes *to master* the subject of Grammar in a few months, and then *to take* a course in Rhetoric.

Further examples of constructions that do not require the repetition of the preposition:

This is *for* your father and mother.

He wrote *to* his brother and sister to come.

Love *to* you and all the other members of your family.

Note, however, that, for the sake of emphasis, the repetition of the preposition would be correct. Thus:

"This is both *for* your father and *for* your mother."

"He wrote *to* his brother and *to* his sister as well."

Constructions like the following always require the repetition of the preposition:

INCORRECT.

Russia was ruled *by* the dissolute Elizabeth and *Catherine the Great.*

CORRECT.

Russia was ruled *by* the dissolute Elizabeth and *by* Catherine the Great.

Prepositional Phrase With Singular Subject.

See *Concord of Subject and Verb.*

Preposition at the end of a sentence.

Some critics censure the use of the preposition at the close of the sentence, but occasionally it is desirable; as, for example, in every-day speech, and again in such constructions as, "This is the end that he aimed *at.*" "This is the end at which he aimed," would be preferred in very dignified writing or where the construction would sound weak, if closed with a preposition. *To,* however, must never close a sentence when used as a part of the infinitive; thus, instead of saying, "I do not go there so often as I used *to,*" the infinitive (*go*) is required to complete the wording. Again, when the object of the preposition is a pronoun, the preposition often closes the sentence; as, "What are you talking *about?*" "What are you looking *for?*" "Whom is your letter *from?*" "Whom is this parcel *for?*" While in dignified utterance, the preposition precedes the pronoun, it is common, even with good speakers, for the

preposition to follow the pronoun in ordinary conversation.

Present and Introduce.

To *present* a person is to bring him or her into the presence of a superior; to make him or her known to a superior, or to one who takes precedence over another. To *introduce* is to make equals known to each other.

Pretty.

Pretty may be used to express a degree less than *very;* as, "I am *pretty* sure that he will come." This use of *pretty* is regarded by some as not being an elegant term; but as it conveys a meaning that can hardly be expressed by any other word, it should not be censured. It should, however, not be used when another word would express the meaning more definitely.

Pretty Near and Pretty Nearly.

Near is required when the meaning is *nigh; nearly,* when the meaning is *within a little, almost;* as, "I live *pretty* (very) *near* here;" "I have *pretty* (very) *nearly* finished my letter."

Note that in the foregoing, *very* is the better word.

Prevention and Preventative.

Preventative is an irregular and improper form of *preventive;* the latter is interchangeable with *prevention* when used in the sense of a precautionary measure.

Previous and Previously.

One properly says, "I saw him *previously* to my going," and not "I saw him *previous* to my going." The adverb, and not the adjective, is required, for the reason that reference is made

to the action of the verb, and not to the condition of the subject.

"I saw him before going," as the simpler construction, is preferred by many.

Propose.

Instead of saying, "I don't *propose* to be imposed on," one properly says, "I don't *intend* to be imposed on," *propose* being incorrectly used in the sense of *intend*. One may *propose* a bill to a legislative body, *propose* as in an offer of marriage, or *propose* one as a member of a club.

Proved and Proven.

Proved, not *proven,* is the correct wording except in the Scottish verdict "not proven." Instead of saying, "This can be easily *proven;*" "They have *proven* him guilty," one properly says, "This can be easily *proved;*" "They have *proved* him guilty."

Century gives the following: "*Prove:* pret. *proved;* pp., *proved,*—sometimes incorrectly *proven,* ppr., *proving.* Again: *proven,* pp. an improper form, lately growing in frequency by imitation of the Scotch use in 'Not proven.'

Not proven.—In Scots law a verdict rendered by a jury in a criminal case where the evidence is insufficient to justify a conviction, yet strong enough to warrant a grave suspicion of guilt." In other words, *proved,* and not *proven,* conforms to the literary and the conversational employment of the language.

Providing and Provided.

Providing is incorrectly used in such constructions as, "I shall go East *providing* I can leave home," *provided* or *provided that* being required. *Provided* is correctly used as a parti-

ciple; as, "He has been a dutiful son, *providing* in every way for the comfort of his parents.

Q.

Quantity, Number.

Quantity is used of that which can be measured; *number,* of that which can be counted; as, "There is a large *quantity* of sugar on hand;" "There are a large *number* of eggs in the basket." (In connection with the use of the singular or the plural verb with the word *number,* note that the plural verb is used when *number* means *several;* the singular, when *number* is used to stand for a unit; as, "A *number* of persons *are* going" (several); "The *number is* limited to five."

Quit.

"*Quit* that," meaning "cease that" is not a good use of *quit. Quit,* used in the sense of withdrawing from, as "to *quit* business," is correctly used.

Quite a Little.

Quite means *wholly;* as, "*quite* exhausted;" but *quite a little* is a meaningless expression.

R.

Raise and Raze.

To *raise* is to elevate; to *raze* is to level with the ground.

Raise and Rise.

See *Rise.*

Raised.

One properly says, "I was *brought up* (or *reared*) in the East," not "I was *raised* in the

East." Cattle are *raised,* but it is not good form to speak of raising human beings.

Rarebit and Rabbit.

The dictionaries record to words: "Welsh rabbit" and "Welsh rarebit," each being pronounced as it is spelled. "Welsh rabbit" was supposed, at one time, to be a corruption of "Welsh rarebit," but as that opinion is now regarded as erroneous, "Welsh rabbit" has come into repute, and is now the form preferred by many.

Rarely ever; Seldom ever.

One properly says, "I *rarely* (or *seldom*) if ever go there," not "I *rarely* (or *seldom*) go there," the meaning being, "I *rarely* (or *seldom*) go, if I ever go."

Real.

Instead of "I am *real* sorry," one properly says, "I am *very* sorry." The adjective *real* being improperly used in the sense of *very.*

Reason why.

An explanatory clause following *reason why* is introduced by *that,*—as, "The reason why I have done this is *that* you might be benefited.

Receipt and Recipe.

One properly says, "The *receipt* calls for three cupfuls of flour," *recipe* being restricted in its use as a medical term. Century gives the following: "*Receipt* is distinguished from *recipe* by the common restriction of that word [*recipe*] to medical and relative uses; as, "A *receipt* for a pudding."

Recollect and Remember.

We *recollect* that which we have difficulty in

recalling; we *remember* that which we have not forgotten; as, "By degrees he *recollected* them and where he had first met them;" "I shall always *remember* your kindness."

Reduce and Lessen.

We *reduce* that which we bring to a specified form; we *lessen* that which we diminish; as, "His weight has been *reduced* by this method of treatment;" "The number of mistakes has been *lessened* by this method.

Relation and Relative.

Instead of saying, "He is a *relation* of mine," one properly says, "He is a *relative* of mine," *relation* being nicely restricted to other uses.

Relative and Relatively.

Instead of saying, "I shall write (or speak) to him *relative* to the matter," one properly says, "I shall write (or speak) to him *relatively* to the matter," the adverb being required to modify the verb. In the sentence, "I have received your letter *relative* to the matter," *relative* is correct, for the reason that the noun *letter* is modified, and hence, the adjective is correctly employed. Again, in such constructions as, "*Relatively* to your agreement to pay twenty-five dollars a month on your account, we respectfully call your attention," etc., the adverb is required, for the reason that the word modifies the verb *call.*

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.*

The following are the rules that govern the relative pronouns *who, which, what* and *that:*

* CORRECT ENGLISH: A COMPLETE GRAMMAR.

A relative pronoun is a pronoun that relates to an antecedent (noun or pronoun), and at the same time performs the office of a conjunction.*

(*a*) The relative pronouns are *who, which, that,* and *what. As* and *but* are occasionally used as relative pronouns. (Read p. 197, 3.)

(*b*) The relative pronoun always relates to an antecedent (a noun or pronoun in a preceding clause), and at the same time connects the clause that it introduces with the one that contains the antecedent to which it relates, as, "I have read the book that you sent me." *That* is a relative pronoun, first, because it relates to the antecedent *book,* in the preceding clause (I have read the book), and secondly, because it performs the office of a conjunction in that it connects the clause, "you sent me," which it introduces, with the clause, "I have read the book," which contains the antecedent (book) to which it relates.

(*c*) The compound relative pronouns are *whoso, whoever, whosoever, whichever, whichsoever, whatever, whatsoever.*

Who, which, and *what* were not used in Anglo-Saxon as relatives. They were originally interrogative pronouns. *That,* originally a demonstrative pronoun, was the first to become a relative pronoun.

DECLENSION.

Who and *which* are declined. *That* and *what* are not declined.

* Correct English: A Complete Grammar.

WHO

		Singular.	Plural.
Case.	Nominative	who	who
	Possessive	whose	whose
	Objective	whom	whom

WHICH

Case.	Nominative	which	which
	Possessive	whose	which
	Objective	which	which

Examples of the correct use of the relative pronouns, *who, which, that,* and *what:*

1. I gave the money to the driver, *who* will give it to his employer.

2. I brought her a book, from the library, *which* she enjoyed very much.

3. This is the house *that* she bought.

4. I do not want you to repeat *what* I have told you.

(*a*) In the last sentence *what* is equivalent to *that which* or the *thing which.* It differs from the other relative pronouns in that *its antecedent is never expressed,* it being implied in the word itself (that which).

(*b*) *What* is always of the neuter gender, and is used in only the nominative and the objective case. *Who, whose,* and *whom* are either masculine and feminine (common gender) and are used, respectively, in the nominative, the possessive, and the objective case.

(*c*) *Which* is neuter and may be used in either the nominative or the objective case.

(*d*) *Whose* is the form of the possessive for either *who* or *which.*

(*e*) *Who* is now used chiefly of persons, also of animals, and sometimes even of things, when

represented with some of the attributes of humanity, as in personification or vivid description.

Ex.—(Of persons) "The man *who* would attain to greatness must be great." (Of animals when they are referred to as human beings) "Animals *who* by proper application of rewards and punishments may be taught any course of action." (In personification) "And you, ye stars, *who* slowly begin to marshal, as of old, in the fields of heaven."

(*f*) *Which* is used only of animals and things.

Ex.—(Of animals) "He owns a dog, *which* has taken the first prize at every show." (Of things) "Unto her face she lifts her hand, *which* rests there still a space, then slowly falls."

(*g*) The antecedent may also be a phrase or a clause.

Ex.—(The antecedent is a clause) "The rain washed the track, *which* delayed the train." *The rain washed the track* is a clause and is the antecedent of *which*.

Constructions like the foregoing kind are censured by some critics.

(*h*) *Who* and *which* should be used when a *new fact is added*. Thus, "I heard the story from Mrs. Black, *who* (and she) heard it from Mr. White."

Exceptions to the use of *that:*

(*a*) *That* cannot be used when a preposition is required before it.

(*b*) *That* cannot be used when the meaning is, "and he," "and she," "and it;" thus, in the sentence, "I met a man, *who* kindly showed me the way," the meaning is, "I met a man, and he kindly showed me the way." In the sentence, "I studied geometry, which I found difficult,"

the meaning is, "I studied geometry, *and* I found it difficult."

(*c*) *That* should not be used when the antecedent is modified by *that;* thus: Such constructions as, "*That* boy *who* called yesterday," "*That* book *which* you lent me," are more euphonious than "*That* boy *that* called yesterday;" "*That* book *that* you lent me."

Grammarians have a tendency to use *that* strictly as a limiting or definite relative pronoun, just as *the* is used as a definite or limiting article. Inasmuch as many writers prefer to use *that* when the sense is restrictive, the following suggestions are given:

That is preferable to *who* and *which* in the following cases:

(*a*) When the antecedent to which it refers denotes both persons and things; as, "I counted the children and the dogs *that* came out to greet me."

(*b*) When the clause that it introduces, or of which it is the subject, limits or defines the antecedent; as, "Give me the money *that* you collected." "Bring me the book *that* is lying on the table." In both sentences, the dependent clauses, *that you collected* and *that is lying on the table,* are restrictive, *that* limiting the antecedent just as the adjective *the* in the sentence, "The minister has come," limits the meaning *by distinguishing that particular minister from the rest of his class.*

Who and *which* are preferable to *that* in the following cases:

(*a*) *Who* is preferable to *that* when its antecedent is already restricted. Thus, "My friend from New York *whom* I had invited to visit me is unable to come." The antecedent of *whom*

is *friend*. *Friend* is limited by *my*, hence, *whom* is preferred to *that*.

(*b*) *Which* is preferable to *that* when it is necessary to repeat the pronoun in a subsequent clause in such constructions as, "The book *which* you lent me and to *which* you have just referred," are preferable to "The book *that* you lent me and to *which*," etc.

When a preposition is not required, that is preferable; as, "The book *that* you lent and *that* I have just finished," etc.

(*c*) *Who* is preferable to *that* after indefinite pronouns. Thus, "There are *many who* could not come." "There are *several who* are absent." "There are *those who* would hesitate to accept such terms, while there are *others who* would not."

(*d*) If the relative is separated from its verb, *who* or *which* is preferable to *that;* thus: "There are men *who,* although tempted, never fall, and *who,* no matter what influences surround them, never compromise with their ideals."

Which is more euphonious than *that* in such constructions as, "The objective complement is the word that completes the meaning of the verb *which* it follows."

Relative pronoun, Omission of.

The relative pronoun should not be omitted when required as a subject or an object of a verb; thus: in the sentence, "It was his father, George Carvel, my great grand-sire, reared the present house in the year 1740," the presence of the relative pronoun *who* is required in order that the verb *reared* may be supplied with a subject. In the sentence, "Curiously, even as I fought desperately, I compared him with that

other lad I had known," the relative pronoun *whom* is required in order that the verb *had* known may be supplied with an object. For omission and repetition of the conjunction *that*, see *That*.

Remainder and Balance.

See *Balance*.

Remainder, Rest.

For singular and plural use, see *Concord of Subject and Verb*.

Remit.

Remit should not be used in place of *send*. *Remit* means "to send back."

Remote, Distant.

Remote and *distant* mean *removed far from present time;* or *located far from a specific place;* as: "*remote* ancestors," "*remote* future," "*remote* regions," "*distant* relatives," "*distant* place," "*distant* future." One feels, occasionally, a difference between these words without being able readily to define it; thus, we speak of *distant* relatives, but refer to our *remote* ancestors.

Replace and Succeed.

A nice distinction in meaning restricts *replace* to mean that which fills the place of something else; *succeed,* that which comes next; as, "I can *replace* the broken vase by another just like it;" "His brother *succeeded* him in his position as secretary.

Reside and Live.

The simple word *live* is preferable to *reside* when referring to one's place of residence, *reside* being reserved for more stately occasions.

Residence.

Home or *house* is preferable to residence except when speaking of a pretentious looking dwelling, when *residence* may be used. As a rule, however, either *house* or *home* is preferably used.

Respectfully and Respectively.

Respectfully means in a respectful manner; *respectively* refers to persons or things thought of singly; as, "He behaved *respectfully* toward his parents;" "The names of the boys are, *respectively,* John, Henry, and James.

RESTRICTIVE AND NON-RESTRICTIVE CLAUSES.

(*a*) A relative clause introduced by *that* is called a restrictive clause, for the reason that it limits or restricts the meaning of that which it modifies. A relative clause introduced by *who* is non-restrictive when it adds a new fact.

(b) While *who* or *which* is often used even when the sense is restrictive, *that* should never be used unless the sense is restrictive. When instead of the relative pronoun *who* or *which,* the words *and I, and she, and he, and it,* etc., can be substituted, the pronoun *who* or *which* may be used; as, "I have returned the books, *which* I found very interesting" (*and I* found them very interesting).

(*c*) When the clause is introduced by the relative pronoun *what,* the clause is used, not as a modifier, but as a noun. Thus, in the sentence, "I do not know what to say," *what to say* is a noun clause used as the object of the verb *know.*

Reverend.

Reverend is merely an adjective, and in consequence, it cannot be used in place of the title *Mr.* or the initials. *The* is used to point out the particular Mr. Smith; as, "The Reverend Mr.

Smith," or "The Reverend John H. Smith." *The* is correctly used when speaking of the gentleman designated; also correctly used in the superscription on the envelope. In the address of the letter, the following style may be used:

Reverend Mr. Smith,
Chicago, Ill.
Reverend Sir:
(or Dear Sir or Reverend and Dear Sir.)

Reverse to or of.

"Reverse *of*" is correct in such constructions as, "This is the *reverse* side *of* (not *to*) that."

Right.

Instead of "He has a *right* to be punished," one properly says, "He *deserves* to be punished," the use of *right* in the sense of moral obligation or necessity being recorded as a barbarous Britticism or Hibernicism.

Right away.

Instantly or *at once* is suggested as preferable to *right away*.

Rights and Privileges.

A *privilege* is "something peculiar to one or some as distinguished from others; a prerogative;" so that the term is to be employed relatively. "The *rights and privileges* of the people," as often used absolutely in political platforms, demagogical speeches, and radical newspapers, is incorrect, since the people in this sense can have no *privileges, i. e.*, "things peculiar to individuals." Milton's use is correct when he says "We do not mean to destroy all the people's *rights and privileges*," since he is speaking of the people relatively, as distinguished from the magistrates and the king.

Standard Dictionary.

Right and Very.

Right is incorrectly used in the sense of *very;* as, "I am *right* well," "She is *right* pretty," instead of "I am *very* well," "She is *very* pretty."

Rise and Arise.

Note—The choice between the verbs *rise* and *arise* depends somewhat on rhythm, although literal meanings, or those which seem literal, have become associated with *rise,* and figurative meanings with *arise.* Thus, "Early to bed and early to *rise,"* etc. (literal); "The sun is *rising"* (literal); "He *rose* from his chair" (literal); "He had *risen* early" (literal); "If trouble *arises* (figurative) I will help you;" "Music *arose* (figurative) with her soft, voluptuous swell;" "A false prophet has *arisen"* (figurative); "Complications *arising* (figurative) from lack of knowledge caused much difficulty."

Rise and Raise.

Rise means to move upwards; *raise* means to cause to *rise;* as, "He *raised* the bread with yeast;" "The bread is *rising."* The principal parts of *rise* are: present, *rise;* past, *rose;* present participle, *rising;* past participle, *risen.* The principal parts of *raise* are: present, *raise;* past *raised;* present participle, *raising;* past participle, *raised.* Thus one properly says: "The sun *rises* in the east;" "The sun *rose* in the east;" "The sun is *rising* in the east;" "The sun has *risen* in the east;" "*Raise* the window;" "He *raised* the window;" "He is *raising* the window;" "He has *raised* the window."

S.

'S (Apostrophe and the letter s).

See *Possessive Case and Double Possessives.*

Sabbath and Sunday.

Sabbath carries a more direct reference to the Mosaic economy, with a suggestion of sacred rest than does *Sunday* (*dies solis*), a name given by the heathen to the first day of the week. *Sabbath* and *Sunday* are used somewhat interchangeably; as, "*Sabbath* school," or "*Sunday* school." When the reference is merely to the first day of the week, we use *Sunday;* as, "A *Sunday* dinner."

Same.

The use of *same* in the sense of *it,* as, "We have your letter of the 5th inst. and in reply to *same,*" etc., is not in accordance with the best business usage. *Same* is properly used when a noun is understood as following it; as "My vocation is the *same* as yours," *vocation* being understood after *same.* In brief, *same* is properly used as an adjective, but not as a pronoun.

Same and Similar.

Same expreses identity; *similar,* likeness; as, "This is the *same* hat that I had last year" (the one possessed by me last year); "This hat is *similar* to the one I had last year" (like the hat). Again, *same* may be used to express identity of kind in such cases as, "All men possess in a greater or less degree the *same* love of self." While *same* is properly used in this way, it should not be substituted for *similar.* One properly says: "This weather is *similar* to that of last July," or "This is the *same* kind of weather," etc., but not "This is the *same* weather," etc.

Sameness and Similarity.

Sameness indicates absolute resemblance; *Similarity,* a partial resemblance.

Sanatory and Sanitary.

Sanatory means *conducive to health; sanitary* means *hygienic. Sanatory* refers only to that which is good; *sanitary,* to that which is either good or bad; as: "The methods were *sanatory*" (*good; conducive* to health); "The *sanitary* conditions of the house were such that the family was obliged to move" (bad).

Sanatarium, Sanitarium, and Sanatorium.

Sanatorium is recorded in Century as the only correct spelling of the word; but while *sanitarium* is always incorrect, there is now a growing tendency to use *sanatorium* to designate a place where active measures for treatment obtains, and *sanatarium* where the conditions are such as to be favorable to recovery.

Sang and Sung; Sank and Sunk.

See *Have, Has,* and *Had.*

Saw and Seen.

Use *saw* to express a specific time in the past; *seen* to express time perfected in the past, present, or future; as, I *saw* him yesterday; I had *seen* him the day before we parted; I *have* often *seen* him since. I *shall have seen* him by six o'clock this evening. (Do not use *seen* without *have, has, had, was* or *is.*)

I *saw* him yesterday.
I *have* just *seen* him.
I *saw* her at the theater on Monday.
I *have* never *seen* her.
I *saw* him in New York.
I *have* never *seen* him.

I *saw* you on the street the other day.
I *have* often *seen* you on the street.
I *shall have seen* him by this time to-morrow.

Says I.

Says I is a most objectionable expression and is always incorrectly used for "I said."

Scarcely and Hardly.

See *Hardly.*

Scholar and Pupil.

In nice usage, *scholar* is used of one who is distinguished for his possession or pursuit of knowledge; *pupil* is used of one who is a member of a school.

Scribes and Pharisees.

The following are the recorded meanings of *scribe* and *Pharisee:*

Scribe.—(a) In scriptural usage, one whose duty it was to keep the official records of the Jewish nation, or to act as the private secretary of some distinguished person.

(b) One of a body of men who constituted the theologians and priests of the Jewish nation in the time of Christ. Their function was a threefold one: to develop the law, both written and traditional, to teach it to their pupils, and to administer it as learned interpreters in the courts of justice.

Pharisee.—One of an ancient Jewish school, sect, or party, which was specially exact in its interpretation and observance of the law, both canonical and traditional.

In this connection, note that *scribes* is not capitalized unless it begins a sentence, but that *Pharisees* is capitalized, the distinction being attributable to the fact that the *scribes* were

merely a body of men of a particular vocation, while the *Pharisees* were a sect.

Scarcely.

See *Hardly.*

Second and Secondly.

The adjectives *second, third,* etc., are required when the noun is modified; the adverbs *secondly, thirdly,* when the verb is modified. *First,* of course, is the form for both the adjective and the adverb. Thus, in the following construction, the noun is modified; hence the adjective is required; thus:

"The subject is treated under three heads; *first,* the history of the tariff; *second,* the present condition of the tariff system; *third,* features of the present system that are capable of improvement." (First head; second head; third head.)

In the following construction, the verb is modified; hence, the adverb is required; thus: "The pupil should *study* the rules of grammar; *first,* because, etc; *secondly,* because, etc., and *thirdly,* because, etc.

Note that when the meaning is *in the second* (third, fourth, etc.) *case,* the adverb is required.

Seasonable, Timely, and Opportune.

In nice usage, *seasonable* refers to that which is in keeping with the season; *timely,* with that which occurs at the right time; *opportune,* with that which is either seasonable or timely.

See and Witness.

See is used of persons or things; *witness,* more appropriately of *events,* or incidents; as, "I *saw* him last evening and *witnessed* his triumph and mastery of his opponent."

Seldom or Ever.

See *Rarely* or *Ever.*

Sensual and Sensuous.

Sensual is used of one who indulges his animal appetites; *sensuous,* of one who has a keen appreciation of the beautiful; of those things which affect the senses.

Sequence of Tenses.

The following is the rule that governs the sequence of tenses in indirect quotation:

When the time of the principal verb is past, that of the subordinate verb must not be present, unless the subordinate sentence states a fact that is unchanging and universal; thus: "He said that his name *was* John;" "Galileo maintained that the earth *is* round." Note the following: Faulty diction is often the result of failure to employ the proper sequence of tenses in complex sentences. By what is called the *attraction of tenses,* the requirement is, as a rule, that the tense of the dependent verb shall be present when that of the principal verb is present, and past when that of the principal verb is past. Thus: "He says that he *is* tired," becomes when reported as a past state, "He said that he *was* tired." "He *says* that his friend *is* living," becomes "He *said* that his friend *was* living;" "He said that his friend *is* living" is contrary to English analogy.

And again: To the general rule of the attraction of tenses one notable exception is that, when the dependent sentence states a fact that is *unchanging or universal* and hence *always existing,* the present tense is retained in the dependent sentence even when the action of the principal verb is transferred to the past. "He

says that space *is* infinite'' becomes ''He *said* that space *is* infinite.'' ''He *says* that God *is* good'' becomes ''He *said* that God *is* good.'' But ''He said that God *was* very bountiful to him,'' is correct because that is a fact alleged of a certain limited time. So, ''He *says* that God *will* take care of him,'' becomes ''He *said* that God *would* take care of him'' as expressing confidence touching the destiny of one person, rather than a universal truth.—Standard.

''He *affirmed* that he *would* go tomorrow''; but ''Galileo maintained that the earth *is* round.''—Bain.

''He knew what the man's name was.''—The Mother Tongue.

In connection with the foregoing, note the following:

When the quoted matter as, for example, [John says] ''I am ill'' becomes by indirect quotation, ''John said that he was ill'' (meaning that he is now ill), the past tense is required; but, when the matter to be quoted is already in the past tense, it becomes the past perfect in indirect quotation; thus: ''John *heard* that his friend was ill'' becomes in indirect quotation ''John said that he *had heard* that his friend was ill.''

(The following is illustrative of the rule that governs sequences of tenses in indirect quotation:)

John.—James Blank is ill.

Mother.—Mary, what does John say?

Mary.—John *says* that James Blank *is* ill.

Mother.—What was it that John said? I did not hear you.

Mary.—Why, John *said* that James Blank *was* ill.

Mother.—How did John hear the news?

Mary.—John heard the news at school; I mean, he *said* that he *had heard* the news from one of the boys at school.

Set and Settle.

Set, as in the sentence, "The sun *sets,*" is a remnant of the verb *settle;* hence, "The sun *sets,*" (not *sits*) is correct.

Set and Sit.*

RULE.—Use *sit, sat, sitting, sat* to express inaction; *set, set, setting, set* to express action (cause to sit).

SIT

I shall *sit* by the window for a little while.
He *sat* by her side for hours.
He *has sat* on this seat many a time.
How long shall you *sit* here?
Do not *sit* in this draft.
Come! *Sit* by my side.
Do not *sit* in the sun.
I *have been sitting* by the fire.
Have you been *sitting* here long?
He *sat* down hurriedly.
This dress *sits* well.

SET

I *set* the pail on the floor.
She *set* the table while I was waiting.
She is *setting* the table.
She *set* the child on the floor.
She *had been setting* the table.
I *have been setting* the chairs in their places.
Why *do* you not *set* the child down?

* CORRECT ENGLISH DRILL BOOK.

Do not *set* the pitcher of water there; *set* it here.

NOTE.—*Seat* is used in constructions like the following: "She *seated* the guests at the table."

Settle and Pay.

One *pays* a bill and *settles* a disputed account.

Settlement For or Of.

"Settlement *of*," like "payment *of*," is correct in the wording, "I inclose ten dollars in *settlement* of my account. See *Settle* and *Pay*.

Shrank and Shrunk.

See *Have, Has,* and *Had.*

Sickly Climate.

"*Sickly* climate" is incorrect, the word *unhealthful* being the required form.

Sideways.

"Side*wise*" is the correct form. See *Anyways and Anywise.*"

Sieve and Seive.

A *sieve* is an apparatus for sifting matter; a *seive* (or more commonly, *seave)* is a rush or a wick made out of such.

Sight.

Sight, used in the sense of a *great deal* or a *great many,* as, "I have an *awful sight* of work to do," is not in accordance with the best usage of the language.

Similar and Similarly.

See *Same* and *Sameness.*

Since and Ago.

See *Ago.*

Singular or Plural Verb.

See *Concord of Subject and Verb.*

Sit and Set.

See *Set* and *Sit.*

So and That.

Do not use *that* for *so.* Say, "The goods are *so* wide," not "The goods are *that* wide," using the hands to indicate the width.

This correct use of *so* must not be confused with its incorrect employment in the sense of *very.* See *So* and *Very.*

So and Very.

So should not be used for *very;* thus, instead of "I am *so* tired," one properly says, "I am *very* tired." *So* requires a clause of consequence to complete its meaning; as, "I was *so* tired *that* I fell asleep."

Social and Sociable.

When used as a noun; as, "A church *sociable,*" *sociable* is recorded by Century as expressing the meaning. Standard records *sociable* and *social* as interchangeably employed in this sense. When used as an adjective, in the sense to associate with others; as, "a *social*" or "a *sociable* person," the words are interchangeably employed. *Social* is restrictively used to express that which is characteristic of a sociable person; as, "He is a man of *social* tastes." Again, *social* as pertaining to a society, or to the community as a body; as, "*social* duties;" "*social* interests;" "*social* problems" (not sociable).

Society Has.

The singular verb is required in such constructions as, "The *society has* adjourned for the summer." When the individuals are referred to, the plural verb is required; as, "The *society have* quarreled among themselves." See *Collective Nouns.*

Solicitor.

Solicitor is a term used in England of an attorney who practices in the supreme courts, but both *attorneys* and *solicitors* confine themselves simply to instituting action and furnishing material for the argument of the *barrister,* or counsel.

In the United States, where the term *barrister* is not used, the terms *attorney* and *counsel* are practically interchangeable. In equity proceedings, the *attorney* or *counsel* is called a *solicitor;* in admiralty, a *proctor.*

In its specific use, *proctor* is a practitioner in an admiralty, ecclesiastical or probate court.

An *attorney* (private) is one whose practice is restricted to business out of court; a public attorney, or *attorney-at-law,* is qualified to practice in the courts. In this connection, note the following: The term *lawyer* is general, it being applicable to an *attorney* (private), an *attorney-at-law,* a *barrister,* a *solicitor,* an *advocate,* a *sergeant,* or a *proctor.*

In its broad sense, *advocate* is used of one who pleads the case of another in a legal (or ecclesiastical) court, but technically, it is the title used for counselor (or counsel) in those countries which retain the Roman law, as France and Scotland, also in admiralty courts, and many special tribunals, existing or histor-

ical, but not in ordinary English or American courts.

Some and Somewhat.

Somewhat, and not *some,* is required to express degree; as, "He has grown *somewhat,*" not *some.* "He is *somewhat* better," not "*some better.*"

Some One They.

See *Anyone . . . they.*

Something and Somewhat.

Something used as an adverb in the sense of *somewhat,* meaning *in some extent* or *degree,* must be employed very sparingly, as this use of *something* is obsolete except in exceptional phrases; as, "something like." According to this it would be equally correct to say, "*Something* like a year ago;" "*Somewhat* like a year ago;" "She looks *something* like you;" "She looks *somewhat* like you." I note that the expression, "*Somewhat* more than a year ago," is recorded as correct; it would probably be regarded as correct to say "*Something* more than a year ago;" but because of the restricted use of *something* in the sense of *somewhat,* it would seem preferable to use *somewhat* when extent or degree is implied.

Sort and Kind.

Sort and *kind,* in the sense of *class* or *species,* are largely interchangeable; as, "I do not like that *sort* (or *kind*) of thing." Again, when used to express mere resemblance, the words are also interchangeably, though idiomatically used; as, "He has a *sort* of (or *kind* of) low fever."

For use of *sort* and *kind* with *that* and *this*, see *That and This kind.*

Sounds Sweet, Loud, Correct.

See *Adjective After the Verb.*

Sparrow-grass.

Asparagus is the correct word, not *asparagruss* or *grass.*

Speak and Talk.

Speak is more general in meaning than *talk;* thus, a man may *speak* by uttering a single word, whereas, to *talk* is to utter words consecutively; so a man may be able to *speak* without being able to *talk.* *Speak* is also more formal in meaning; as, to *speak* before an audience; while *talk* implies a conversational manner of speaking.

Speak to or Speak With.

When one wishes merely to communicate a fact to some one else, *speak to* is the correct wording; when one wishes to converse with another, *speak with* is the required form; as, "I wish to *speak to* Mr. Black" (communicate a fact); "I wish to *speak with* him" (converse with him).

Specially and Especially.

See *Especially.*

Speciality, Specialty.

Speciality (pronounced speshi-al-it-y) is the state or quality of being *special; specialty* is used of an employment to which one is specially devoted.

Spell.

Spell used in the sense of an indefinite period of time is not in accordance with the best usage

of the language. Instead of saying, "I am going to visit her for a *spell,*" one properly says, "I am going to visit her for a short time," or "for a few days" or "weeks," as the case may require. *Spell* used of a definite duration of time; as, "We have had the longest *spell* of cold weather that I have ever known," is correctly employed. *Spell* used to express a "bad term," an uncomfortable time; as, "He has had a *spell,*" is recorded as colloquial. On the other hand, the wording, "He has had a bad *spell,*" would be permissible.

Splendid.

Splendid is properly applied to a great career, or achievement, and by extension to that which is brilliant; as, "a *splendid* jewel," "a *splendid* deed;" such expressions as "a *splendid* gown," "a *splendid* dinner," are objectionable. Say "a *showy* (or *magnificent*) gown;" "an *excellent* dinner."

"SPLIT INFINITIVE."

The Separation of To, the Sign of the Infinitive, From Its Verb.*

The separation of *to,* the sign of the infinitive, from its verb, is almost universally censured by grammarians, *to* being regarded by them as a part of the verb itself, and, hence, not to be separated from it by the introduction of the adverb.

The history of the infinitive, however, shows that in no sense is *to* a part of the verb, nor is it, in all instances, essential to its meaning, for many verbs drop the preposition *to* when used with such verbs as *have, may, can, shall, will, do, dare,* etc.

*CORRECT ENGLISH: A COMPLETE GRAMMAR.

The preposition *to* must be regarded, not as a part of the infinitive, but merely as the insignia of the gerundial or infinitive nature of the verb.

The preposition *to* is not, nor has it ever been, incorporated into the verb itself; therefore, it can be readily seen that there is no essential reason why it should not be separated from its verb by the introduction of the adverb, especially when by this position the meaning is more clearly or emphatically expressed. In the language of Professor Lounsbury, "This practice, examples of which go as far back, certainly as the fifteenth century, has now become quite common. In spite of the opposition that it encounters, there is little question that it will establish itself permanently in the language."

In many constructions, greater force and perspicuity can be gained by placing the adverb before the sign of the infinitive; but, in other constructions, the meaning is more clearly expressed by inserting the adverb between the preposition and the infinitive. To illustrate, the construction, "To *really* know a person, one must know him intimately," more clearly expresses the meaning than does the form, "*Really* to know a person one must know him intimately;" or, "To know a person *really,* one must know him intimately." On the other hand, the construction, "It is a scene *never* to be forgotten," is more forceful than "It is a scene to *never* be forgotten." Thus we see that the rule given by grammarians: "To," *the sign of the infinite, should never be separated from its verb,* should be modified by the clause, *unless the meaning can be more clearly expressed by the insertion of the adverb.*

Spoonfuls.

See *Cupfuls* and *Teaspoonfuls.*

Sprang and Sprung.

See *Have, Has,* and *Had.*

Stand point.

See *Point of view.*

Standing Up.

Standard sanctions "stand *up,*" meaning to *stand* or *cause to stand erect;* as, "She felt too ill to *stand up.*"

Stationary and Stationery.

Stationary refers to that which remains in one place; *stationery* is used of writing material. The pronunciation is the same in both. (By associating the *a* in *ary* with *a* in *place* (station*ary* and *place*), one can remember how to distinguish between *stationary* and *stationery.*

Still continue.

Still is superfluous with *continue;* as, "I shall *still continue* my studies in English.

Stimulant and Stimulus.

A *stimulant* is that which quickens the action of some organ; as, "Coffee and tea are *stimulants;*" a *stimulus* is that which inspires one to act; as "The offer of a reward is often the *stimulus* that leads to success."

Stood silent.

The adjective *silent,* not the adverb *silently,* is required after *stood,* the reference being to the subject; as, "He stood *silent,*" meaning "He *was silent.*" The adverb is required after *stood* when the reference is to the meaning of

standing; as, "He stood *quietly,*" that is, *without moving.*

Stop and Stay.

Stop should not be used in the sense of *stay; stop* is the reverse of *start,* and indicates only a short period of rest in one's travel; thus: we say, "I shall *stop* at Evanston for a few hours on my way to Racine, but I shall *stay* at the latter place for several days."

Stricken.

Standard gives the following: "As a past participle of *strike,* archaic in England, except when there is an implication in it of misfortune; as, 'He was *stricken* with paralysis.' In the United States *stricken,* in general application, is not so distinctly archaic, and its use in reference to the erasure of words is very frequent; as, 'It is ordered that the words objected to be *stricken* out.' In the best literary usage of both countries *struck* is preferred to *stricken* when no implication of misfortune is conveyed in it. *Stricken* is the appropriate participial adjective; as, 'a *stricken* man;' 'a *stricken* deer.' "

Subjunctive Mode.

See *If it is* and *If it be; If it was* and *If it were.*

Subject and Verb.

See *Concord of Subject and Verb.*

Subscribe and Subscription.

We *subscribe for* a paper, but speak of our *subscription to* it; as, "Last year I *subscribed for* only two magazines; this year I shall enter my *subscription* to several."

Subtile and Subtle.

Subtile (pronounced *sut'l* or *sub'til*) and *subtle* (pronounced *sut'l*) are interchangeably used. These words have several meanings, of which the following are some of the most important:

1. *Thin; exceedingly fine; rarefied;* as, "a *subtile* (or *subtle*) order;" "a *subtile* (or *subtle*) powder;" "a *subtile* (or *subtle*) medium."

2. *Delicately constructed; refined; dainty;* as, "The more frequently and narrowly we look into them [works of nature], the more occasion we shall have to admire their fine and *subtile* texture; their beauty," etc.

3. *Sly, insinuating, artful, cunning, crafty, deceitful, treacherous;* as, "A *subtile* (or *subtle*) scheme."

4. *Cunningly devised; artfully contrived* or *handled; clever;* as, "A *subtle* (or *subtile*) stratagem."

5. *Characterized by acuteness and penetration of mind; sagacious; quick-witted;* as, "a *subtile* (or *subtle*) understanding;" "*subtile* (or *subtle*) penetration or insight."

6. *Ingenious; skilful; clever; handy;* as, "a *subtile* (or *subtle*) operator."

Such.

Such is censured by critics when used in the sense of *so*. Instead of "I have never read *such* an interesting book," one properly says, "I never read *so* interesting a book." See *So*.

Such, like *so,* is properly followed by a "that clause;" as, "It was *such* a rainy day *that* I was obliged to remain at home."

Such like.

1. "Such like," is a pleonasm; either *such* or *like* being redundant. In such sentences as, "We read novels and *such like*," *such* is incorrectly used, "We read novels and *the like*," being the correct form.

Sun shines bright.

Those who regard the verb *shines* as being modified, would require the adverb *brightly* to be used; those who construe *shine* as being merely equivalent to the verb *is*, would use the adjective *bright*. In poetry, *bright* is common. In other words, both *bright* and *brightly* are in use.

SUPERFLUOUS WORDS.*

To return *back*.
They retreated *back*.
Equally *as* good.
I shall fall *down*.
The first *of all*.
The last *of all*.
He has *got* money.
Off *of*.
Up above.
At about.
From hence, *from* thence, *from* whence.
Give me both *of* those books.
Connect these ideas *together*.
They were united *together*.
He combined these facts *together*.
They had combined *together*.
They invited me to enter *in*.
Are set apart *by themselves*.
Not in a *straight* line with them.
The stones lay *alone* by themselves.
When *he was* convinced that he was in error.

*Elma Iona Locke, in CORRECT ENGLISH.

There are certain features of monastic life *which* are common to all the monasteries.

Had grown up about *and around* it.

From the *first* conception of the scheme to its *final* consummation.

By the *latter* end of the week.

Sylvan forest.

False misrepresentations.

Trifling minutiæ.

Meet *together.*

A widow *woman.*

Look and see if they are coming.

I recollect *of* doing it.

In so far as I know.

We may value highly, but not appreciate *highly.*

They ascended *up* the hill.

Where has he been *to?*

These baskets are *both* alike.

A kind of *a* chaise.

A *new* beginner.

I *had* ought to have gone.

They rose *up* early.

They sank *down* upon the ground.

He is taller than you think *for.*

Did you smell *of* the roses?

Suppose and Expect.

Expect properly refers to the *future; suppose,* to the present, past, or future. Again, *expect* expresses *expectation;* it should not be used for *suppose,* which expresses a supposition; thus: we should say, "I *suppose* you will go;" on the other hand we say, "I *expect* him this evening." The following are correct uses of these words:

I *suppose* that you had a pleasant time yesterday. (Not *expect.*)

I *suppose* that you will have a pleasant time this evening. (Not *expect.*)

I *suppose* that he is offended. (Not *expect.*)

I *suppose* that he will be late this evening. (Not *expect.*)

I *suppose* that you were late at school this morning. (Not *expect.*)

I *expect* to go to New York next week.

I am *expecting* a telegram every minute.

I am *expecting* a letter from my brother.

Do you *expect* to go?

Sure and Surely.

The adverb *surely,* not the adjective *sure,* is required in response to the question, "Are you really going?" "Surely" meaning, "I am *surely* going."

Swam and Swum.

See *Have, Has,* and *Had.**

Sweetly.

The adjective *sweet,* and not the adverb *sweetly,* is required after verbs of inaction; as, "The flower smells *sweet*" (not *sweetly*). See *Adverb or Adjective.*

Symbol, Emblem, Type.

Symbol and *emblem* are interchangeable in meaning when used in the sense of something whose predominant quality symbolizes something else; as, "A white robe is a *symbol* (or *emblem*) of purity;" *Type* is used in the sense of *emblem;* but, while *symbol* and *emblem* refer only to tangible objects, *type* refers

*Bound Volume IX. p. 147.

also to an act, as, for example, the lifting of the brazen serpent is said to be a *type* of the crucifixion. (*Type* has, of course, another meaning,—that of a definite standard, or a model or pattern.)

Century gives the following:

"A *symbol* is generally an *emblem* which has become recognized or standard among men; a volume proposing new signs of this sort would be called 'a book of *emblems;*' but an *emblem* may be a *symbol,* as the bread and wine at the Lord's supper are more often called *emblems* than *symbols* of Christ's death. *Symbol* is, by this rule, the appropriate word for the conventional signs in mathematics. *Emblem* is most often used of moral and religious matters, and *type,* chiefly of religious doctrines, institutions, historical facts, etc. *Type* in its religious application generally points forward to an *antitype.*" [*Antitype,*—that which is represented by a *type* and, therefore, is correlative with it. *Type,* in one of its meanings, being a foreshadowing of some reality to come, points forward to an *antitype;* as, "The paschal lamb is the *type* of Christ, who is the *antitype.*"]

"Rose of the desert! thou art to me
An *emblem* of stainless purity."

"The cock is the *symbol* of fire, and it is even to this day a common expression among the Norsemen, when a fire breaks out, that the cock is crowing on the roof of the house."

"Beauty was lent to Nature as the *type*
Of heaven's unspeakable and holy joy."

I thank you for your very kind expressions of appreciation.

T.

Take.

Take is properly followed by an object; as, "Are you going to take *music-lessons* of your former teacher?" not "Are you going to *take* of your former teacher?"

Tastily.

Tastily should not be used for *tastefully.* Instead of saying, "The room was *tastily* arranged," one properly says, "The room was *tastefully* arranged."

Teaspoonfuls.

See *Cupfuls.*

Tend and Attend.

Tend means to *move or be directed; hold a course;* as, "Our argument seems, for some time, to have been *tending* towards this point;" again, *tend* means to have a bent or inclination to effective action in some particular direction; as, "Exercise *tends* to strengthen the muscles." *Tend* is also used in the sense of *to serve, contribute or conduce in some way;* as, "This condition of affairs may *tend* to your advantage."

Attend means to accompany (literally or figuratively); as, "May good fortune *attend* you in all things." *Attend* means also to give attention; as, "*Attend* to what he tells you."

Tense, Past and Perfect.

The past tense expresses a specific time in the past; the perfect tense expresses time that reaches to the present, thus: (past) "I *saw* him yesterday," (perfect) "I *have* just *seen* him." See *Have, Has, and Had; Have ever.*

Tenses.

See *Sequence* of *Tenses; Past Tenses.*

Than and But.

One properly says, "It was no one else *than* he," or, "It was no one else *but* him."

See *Else.*

Than Me or Than I; Than Whom.

Than connects clauses, and not words; hence, such constructions as, "The painting was done by no other than *I*" (than I was other), are correct. *Than,* in constructions of this kind, often has the appearance of a preposition, requiring after it an objective form: but it is generally conceded by grammarians to be a conjunction connecting two clauses, one of which may be elliptical. Sometimes, there is an ellipsis of the verb as in the sentence, "He is taller than I," and sometimes there is an ellipsis of both subject and verb as in the sentence, "I like you better than him," that is, "I like you better than *I like* him."

The expression "than whom" as in the sentence, "Satan *than whom* none higher sat," is idiomatic,—incorrect according to the grammar of the language, but correct as to its usage.

In connection with the use of *than* as a connective of clauses, and not of words, Raub gives the following:

"*Than,* as a conjunction, is used to connect sentences; as, 'He is older than I' (am old). Dr. Hodgson and some others take the ground that *than* must connect like cases, nominative with nominative, and objective with objective. Thus, they would condemn the following sentence from Kingsley's *Westward Ho:* 'Think

not of me, good fellows, nor talk of me; but come behind me decently, as Christian men, and follow to the grave the body of a better man than I' and change the *I* to *me,* on the ground that the conjunction connects the noun *man* in the objective with the pronoun *I,* which they claim should also be in the objective case.

"The conjunction *than* connects sentences here as elsewhere, and the sentence means, 'follow to the grave a better man than I' (am good), and it is correct as written by Mr. Kingsley.

"So also the following from Dickens, which Dr. Hodgson condemns, is correct: 'The smooth manner of the spy, cautiously in dissonance with his ostentatiously rough dress, and probably with his usual demeanor, received such a check from the inscrutability of Carton, who was a mystery to wiser and honester men than *he,* that it falters here, and failed him.' "

That.

For special uses of the pronoun *that* see *Relative Pronouns.*

That, Repetition of.

That should be repeated when it is desired to connect a subordinate clause as in the following: "He said *that* he would come and *that* he would bring the papers with him," not "and he would," etc.; or the subject pronoun in the subordinate clause may be omitted; as, "He said that he would come and would bring the papers with him." In other words, *and* must not connect dissimilar elements.

That, Superfluous Use of.

Care must be taken not to repeat *that* in such constructions as, "The opening of this new department is in response to the suggestion *that,* since this store sells everything for which the Sewing Machine is used, *that* the machine itself is essential to meet our customers' requirements."

The first *that* grammatically introduces the clause, "that the machine itself is essential," etc.

That and So.

See *So.*

That and This.

That expresses what is remote; *this,* what is near. For example, *this,* and not *that,* is required in such constructions as, "They were fortified by their great ambitions and by their consciousness of supreme power; for *this* (not *that*) reason, many of us are likely," etc.

That and This Kind.

This and *that* are used with *kind; these* and *those* with *kinds;* as, "I like *these kinds* (not *these kind*) of books," or "I like books of *this* or *that kind.*"

While *these* or *those kinds* is frequently used when referring to only one kind, in strict usage, *this* or *that kind* should be employed, unless different kinds are meant. Thus; one properly says: "*This* (or *that*) *kind* of book" or "Books of *this* or *that kind.*" For two or more kinds one says, "*These* or *those kinds* of books." The same rule applies to *sort* and *style.* In connection with *kind,* note that when *some* and *all* are employed, the plural *kinds* is

always required; as, "I like *some* (or *all*) *kinds* of books," not "*some* (or all) *kind* of books."

The.

See *Article, Repetition of.*

Their for One.

See *One.*

Them for These.

Them is correctly used only of persons or things previously mentioned; as, "Give money to *those* (not *them*) who need it." Again in- instead of "Give me *them* things," one properly says, "Give me *those* things."

Thence and Whence.

From is superfluous when used before *thence* and *whence.*

There.

When *there* is used in the place of the real subject, the verb is singular or plural according as the real subject is singular or plural. See *Concord of Subject and Verb.*

Therefor and Therefore.

Therefor means *for this or that;* as, "We will sell the building and so much land as is needed *therefor. Therefore* means *for this or that reason;* as, "He has disobeyed me; *therefore,* he cannot go."

Think and Guess.

"I *think* I *shall,*" not "I *guess* I *will,*" is the correct wording, *guess* being restricted to such uses as, "*Guess* who was here last evening;" "You cannot *guess* who was here." See *Guess, Suppose, Think.*

Third and Thirdly.

See *Second* and *Secondly.*

Thought and Idea.

Thought and *idea* are largely interchangeable in such expressions as, "The *idea* occurred to me;" "The *thought* occurred to me." The following are some of the recorded definitions of *thought* and *idea:*

Thought.—1. The act or the product of thinking.

(a) In the most concrete sense, a single step in a process of thinking; a notion; a reflection.

"They are never alone . . . that are accompanied with noble *thoughts.*"

(b) The condition or state of a person during such mental action.

"Sir Bedwere . . . paced beside the mare . . . fixed in *thought.*"

(c) A synonym of cognition in the common threefold division of modes of consciousness.

"*Feeling, thought,* and *action* are to a certain extent opposed, or mutually exclusive, states of mind.

(d) The objective element of the intellectual product; as, "*Thought* always precedes from the less to the more determinate."

(e) A judgment or mental proposition, in which form the concept always appears.

2. An intention; a half-formed determination; as, "I have some *thought* of going to Europe."

Idea.—A mental image or picture. In the language of Descartes and of English philosophers, an immediate object of thought—that is, what one feels when one feels, or fancies when

one fancies, or thinks when one thinks; an opinion; a thought, especially, one not well established by evidence.

Those who or Those that.

"Those *who*" is regarded as preferable to "those *that*," the rule being that after indefinite pronouns, *those, some, any one,* etc., *who* is the better word.

Through for Finished.

See *Finished.*

Till and Until.

Till and *until* are interchangeable when the meaning is "to the time of;" as, "He waited *till* (or *until*) 4 o'clock." The form "from 3 *until* 5 o'clock" is more frequently used in invitations than either *till* or *to.*

To.

A sentence should not end with *to* when *to* is a part of the infinitive; as, for example, "I don't wish *to,*" instead of "I don't wish *to go.*"

See *Prepositions at the end of the Sentence.*

To a degree.

Instead of "His dress was careless *to a degree,*" one properly says, "His dress was *extremely* careless," "to a degree" lacking definitiveness of expression.

To and Of.

See *Of the time.*

To Be.*

The following special rules govern the use of the pronoun after the verb *to be:*

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General Rule.—The noun or pronoun that follows the verb *to be* (*am, is, are, was, were, have been, has been, had been, shall be, will be,* etc.) is in the same case as the noun or pronoun that preceded the verb *be.*

Special Rule.—The pronouns *I, he, she, we, they* follow the verbs *am, is, was, were, have been, has been, had been, can be, could be, may be, might be, shall be, will be;* thus:

I am *he* (*she*).
It is *I* (*he, she, we, they*).
It is not *I* (*he, she, we, they*).
He is not *I.*
You are not *he* (*I, she, we*).
That is not *she* (*he*).
We are not *they.*
They are not *we.*
Those are *they.*
Those are not *they.*
These are *they.*
These are not *they.*

It was not *I* that spoke.

Is it *they* whom you mean?

I think that you will find that it was *she* who did it.

Caution.—When the pronoun follows the infinitive *to be,* caution is necessary, thus: in the sentence, "I supposed it to be him," *him,* and not *he,* is required, for the reason that *to be* is a verb in this sentence, and, hence, the pronoun that precedes the verb *to be* is in the objective case.

Rule.—The subject of the infinitive is in the objective case.

Special Rule.—The pronouns *me, her, him, us, them,* follow *to be* when *to be* is preceded by a noun or a pronoun; thus:

I supposed it to be *her* (*him, them*).
I thought it to be *him* (*her, them.*)

They supposed it to be *me* (*her, him, us, them*).

I cannot imagine it to be *her* (*him, them*).

Can you imagine it to be *them?*

How could you suppose it to be *me?*

How could you suppose it to be *them?*

General Rule.—The noun or pronoun that follows the infinitive *to be* when the infinitive is not a verb, is in the nominative case.

Note.—The infinitive when a verb is always preceded by a noun or a pronoun in the objective case.

Special Rule.—The pronouns *I, he, she, we, they* follow *to be* when *to be* is not preceded by a noun or a pronoun.

Note that in the following sentences *to be* is not preceded by a noun or a pronoun:

It was supposed to be *I* who made the error.

It was supposed to be *she* who called.

It was thought to be *he* to whom the speaker referred.

I should like to be *he* (*she, they*).

I should not like to be *she.*

How should you like to be *I?*

It was not *she* who called.

It was not *we* who made the mistake.

It was not *they* to whom he referred.

It could not have been *I,* for I was out of town.

It could not have been *they* who called.

It may have been *he* (*she, they*).

I hardly think that it was *he* to whom Mr. Blank referred.

I think it was *she,* not *he,* who called.

If it had been *he* who called, I should have seen him.

He thinks it was *I* who called.

He thinks it was *she* who invited him.

They know it was not *we* who engaged the rooms.

He says it was *he* who sold her the goods.

We think it is *they,* and they think it is *we.*

If I had been *she,* I should not have left the room.

If you had been *I,* you would have acted the same way.

If he had been *she,* he would not have cared.

It is *I* to whom you are speaking.

Is it *she* to whom you refer?

Is it *we* that are to receive the gifts?

Should you like to be *we?*

I think that I should like to be *she.*

Do you think that you should like to be *he?*

General Rule.—A noun or pronoun after the verb *to be* in the gerundial construction (*being*) is in the nominative case.

Special Rule.—The pronouns *I, he, she, we, they* follow *being;* thus:

I had no thought of its being *he.*

I had no thought of its being *she.*

He had no thought of its being *she.*

She had no thought of its being *I.*

They had no thought of its being *me.*

To for At.

See *Been to.*

To, Superfluous Use of.

To is superfluous in such sentences as, "Where are you going *to?*"

To the manor born.

To the manner born, and not *to the manor born,* is the correct form.

To-day or Today; To-night or Tonight; To-morrow or Tomorrow.

To-day, to-night, or *to-morrow* may be written either with or without the hyphen, but precedence is given to the hyphenated form.

To-morrow is or To-morrow will be.

"To-morrow *will be* Tuesday," is the correct form. Compare with "Yesterday *was* Monday."

Toward, Towards.

Toward and *towards* are variant forms and are equally correct; but *towards* is more frequently used than *toward.*

Transfer, Transferal, Transference.

Transfer, transferal, transference, are interchangeable in meaning.

Transpire and Happen.

Instead of saying, "What has *transpired* in my absence?" one properly says, "What has *occurred* in my absence?" *Transpire* properly means *to make known;* as, "Presently it *transpired* that she had taken all her belongings with her."

Transpire and Perspire.

Transpire and *perspire* are recorded as interchangeable in the sense to *emit through the excretions of the skin and lungs;* but in actual usage, *perspire,* not *transpire,* seems to be generally employed to express this meaning, *transpire* being restricted to mean *to pass out,* as in D'Israeli's employment of the word:

"But how are we to account, in a mind otherwise sane, for his (Harrington's) notion that his thought *transpired* from him, and took the shape of flies or bees."

Try an experiment.

One properly says, "*Make* (not *try*) an experiment," an experiment being a trial.

Try and.

Instead of saying "I will *try and* come" one properly says, "I will *try* to come;" *try* being used in the sense of *endeavor.*

Try as we will.

Try as we *may,* not "Try as we *will,*" is the required form.

Turn away around.

Away is superfluous in the expression, "Turn *away* around." *Way,* in the use of *away,* is always incorrect.

Twice two are four.

"Twice two *are* four," is correct.

See *Four and Five Is or Are.*

Twins.

Twins means *two; twin* means *one of two* A pair of twins means two individuals; two pair, four.

Two and two are.

See *Four and Five Is or Are.*

Two first.

See *First Two* and *Last Two.*

U.

Unbeknown.

Unbeknown for *unknown,* recorded as a colloquialism, is highly condemned by some critics.

Under his signature or Over his signature.

Although criticised by some authorities, "Under his signature" is correct, the meaning being, "under sanction of his signature."

Undesirable and Indesirable.

Undesirable is the correct form, indesirable being obsolete.

Unfrequently and Infrequently.

Both *unfrequently* and *infrequently* are recorded, but the former is rare.

Unmoral and Immoral.

While *unmoral* is recorded, in one of its definitions, as meaning *not moral,* it is nicely used of that which is not a subject of moral attributes; neither moral nor immoral. *Immoral* means *not moral; dissolute; unprincipled; not consistent with moral law.*

Unique.

Unique is not properly modified by *very, unique* meaning the only one of its kind.

United States.

United States is a singular noun, and, hence requires a singular verb; as, "The *United States is* a great nation."

Until.

See *till.*

Upon and On.

See *Call on* and *Call upon.*

Us coming.

See *My going.*

Usage and Use.

Usage means the *customary mode of employing a word, phrase or clause. Use,* while occa-

sionally employed in this sense, more commonly applies to the *state of being employed; utility;* serviceableness.

Use to.

Used to, not *use to,* is the correct form; as, "*I used to go* there very often." In negative constructions, "didn't used to" is always incorrect.

Usually.

See *Commonly, Generally, Frequently, Usually.*

V.

Valuable and Valued.

Century gives the following:

"*Valuable* means: (a) *Capable of being valued;* (b) *Of great value or price; having financial worth;* as, '*a valuable horse;*' 'valuable land;' '*a valuable house;*' (c) *Of great moral worth, utility or importance; precious, worthy, estimable; deserving esteem;* as, '*a valuable* friend;' 'a *valuable* companion.'" None of these uses are given under *valued.* Standard's definitions agree with Century, and under *valued* it gives as one of the meanings, *much esteemed;* as, "a *valued* friendship."

Veracity and Truth.

Veracity is applied to persons and to statements made by them. *Truth* is applied to persons and to facts.

VERBAL NOUNS.

The possessive case is always required before a verbal noun; as, "There is no use in *your* (*his, her, our,* or *their*) going," not

"There is no use in *you* (*him, my, your, his, us* or *them*) remaining." See *My going.*

Very pleased.

Very cannot directly modify a verb, and, hence, not its past participle. One properly says, "I am pleased (or delighted) to meet you," or "I am *very much* pleased (or delighted) to meet you," but not "I am *very* pleased (or *very* delighted) to meet you."

View to and View of.

One properly says, "With *a view to* finding out" or "With *the view of* finding out."

Visit with.

Visit is improperly followed by *with* in such constructions as, "I am *visiting with* friends in New York," "I am visiting friends," etc., being the correct form.

Vocation.

See *Avocation.*

W.

Wages.

See *Concord of Subject and Verb.*

Wake, Awake, and Awaken.

Wake and *awake*, used in the sense of to arouse from sleep, are interchangeable in meaning. *Awaken* is more especially used in a figurative sense; as, "Hope *awakened* in his heart."

The use of the intensive adverb *up,* with *wake,* though redundant, may be sanctioned because of its frequent employment by good speakers.

Want, Wish, or Desire.

See *Desire.*

Want of.

Want of is censured in such constructions as, "What does he *want of* a new automobile?" "What *need* has he of a new automobile?" being regarded as a more desirable expression.

Was and Were.

See *If it was* and *If it were.*

Was come.

See *Is come.*

Was or Were to be or To have been.

Was or *were* with the infinitive, forms a kind of compound tense; as, "There was less trouble than *was to be expected;*" "There were fewer defalcations than *were to be expected.*"

Whether it is permissible to use a perfect infinitive with *was* or *were* is a question about which authorities differ; some ruling that the perfect infinitive is correct in such sentences as, "The wedding *was to have taken* place before her parents' departure for Europe."

Way and Away.

Way (or *'way,* an abbreviation of *away*) should not be used redundantly. Instead of saying, "He has gone *way* out West," one properly says, "He has gone West," both *way* and *out* being superfluous.

Ways for Way.

Ways is incorrectly used for *way* in such sentences as, "He lives a long *ways* from here," "He lives a long *way*" being the correct form.

Well and Good.

See *Good.*

Welsh Rabbit or Welsh Rarebit.

See *Rarebit* or *Rabbit.*

Were and Was.

See *If I was* and *If I were.*

Were after As if.

See *As if.*

Were after Wish.

The subjunctive *were*, not the indicative *was*, is required after *wish;* as, "I wish the ball *were* over." Note that when one can say to oneself "but it (he or she) *is not*," *were* is correct; thus: "I wish the ball *were* over" (*but it is not*). "I wish he *were here*" (*but he is not*). When the meaning is, "but *he* (*she* or *it*) *was not*," then *had been* is required; as, "I wish he *had been* here (*but he was not*).

See *I wish I* (*he, she, it*) *were.*

What for Why.

What is incorrect for *why;* thus: "*Why* did you come?" not "*What* did you come *for?*" unless the question means "*What things* did you come for?"

Whatever and Wherever for What and Where.

The use of *whatever* and *wherever* for *what* and *where* in such constructions as, "*Whatever* shall I do?" "*Wherever* shall I go?" is incorrect; *whatever* and *wherever* being properly used only as relative pronouns; as, "I will do *whatever* you ask me to do;" "I will go *wherever* you wish me to go."

Where's for Where are.

The contraction *where's* should not be used when the subject is plural; as, for example, "*Where's* my rubbers?" for "*Where are* my rubbers?"

WHETHER . . . OR: HOW TO USE THEM.

Whether is used to introduce the first of two (or more) alternatives, the second alternative being introduced by *or*.

The Omission of *Or*.

1. *Whether* may be used to introduce a single alternative, the second alternative, introduced by *or*, being implied; as, "I do not know *whether* I shall go."

Note that the words *or not* are understood. Note also that one may say either: "I do not know *whether* I can go;" "I do not know *whether I can go or not;*" "I do not know *whether or not* I can go." The third form, however, does not seem to be so commonly employed as do the first and the second.

Note also in this connection that many speakers use the conjunction *if* instead of *whether*. Thus: "I do not know *if* I can go." Inasmuch as *if* is used specifically to introduce a suppositional clause, as, "I shall not go if it rains," its use to introduce an alternative clause is censured by many critics. See *If* and *Whether*.

The Repetition of *Whether*.

Whether should not be repeated unless there is introduced another alternative distinct from the one already implied; for, inasmuch as *whether* is employed to indicate a choice of things, it is superfluous to repeat it before the second alternative (expressed or understood). Thus:

INCORRECT.

I do not know *whether* I shall go to New York or *whether* I shall remain in Chicago.

CORRECT.

I do not know *whether* I shall go to New York or remain in Chicago.

The repetition of *whether* is incorrect, for the reason that the choice is not expressed (or implied) in the first alternative. It is not until the second part of the construction introduced by *or* is given that the choice is expressed.

In the following sentences, the repetition of *whether* is correct, for the reason that there are two distinct alternatives. Thus:

CORRECT.

I do not know *whether* I shall go to New York or stay in Chicago, or *whether,* if I decide to go to New York, my employer will be willing to have me go.

I can not tell *whether* it is best to go (or to remain at home), or *whether,* if I were to go, I should lose my position here.

Whether or No.

The expression "whether or no" in such constructions as, "I do not know *whether* he will come or *no,*" is censured by critics. Standard says that usage has legitimatized it, but that "whether or not" is more strictly correct. Century records the use of "whether or no" in such constructions as, "He will do it *whether or no,*" as colloquial.

Whereabouts.

Whereabouts is construed as a singular noun, and, hence, requires a singular verb; as, "His *whereabouts* is unknown."

While and Whilst.

Century records *while* and *whilst* as inter-

changeably used. Standard says that *whilst* is the old form of *while;* that it is generally euphonic, and that it is still widely used in England.

Who, Which, and That.

For construction of *who, which,* and *that,* see *Relative pronouns.*

Who and Whom.*

Who, not *whom,* is required in such constructions as, "I know a man *who,* I think, will do the work for you." The rule is as follows:

Rule.—Use *Who* when it is the subject of a verb. Use *Whom* when it is the object of a verb or a preposition.

Caution.—Do not use *Whom* as an object when it is in reality the subject of a verb from which it is separated; thus: in the sentence, "I know a man who, I think, will do the work." *Who* is the subject of *will do,* and not the object of *think.*

Who.

Who, do you think, gave this to me? (*Who gave.*)

Who, do you suppose, is in the other room? (*Who is.*)

Who, do you imagine, is the culprit? (*Who is.*)

I gave it to the gentleman *who,* you thought, was Mr. Brown. (*Who was.*)

A lady met me at the depot *who,* I understand, is your aunt. (*Who is.*)

Do you know any one *who,* you feel, would be competent to undertake this work? (*Who would be.*)

* Correct English Drill Book.

It is he *who* addressed us at the meeting; it is he *whom* you addressed. (*Who* addressed and you addressed *whom.*)

Whom.

Whom do you mean? (You *mean whom.*)

Whom shall you invite? (You shall invite *whom.*)

For *whom* is this? or *Whom* is this for? (This is for *whom.*)

From *whom* is your letter? or *Whom* is your letter from? (Your letter is from *whom.*)

Whom can you recommend for the position? (You can recommend *whom* for the position.)

This is the gentleman *whom,* I think, you meant. (You *meant* whom.)

I know a gentleman *whom,* I think, I can safely recommend. (*I can recommend* whom.)

Do you know any one *whom* you can recommend? (You *can recommend* whom.)

There are several persons *whom* I should not hesitate to entrust with this commission. (I should not hesitate *to entrust whom.*)

Name some one *whom* I can engage to do this. (I can engage *whom.*)

Who and Whom, Compound forms of.

Sometimes the compound forms of the relative pronoun are required apparently to perform the function of both a subject and an object (direct or indirect), at the same time. When this is the case, the pronoun should be put into the nominative case.

EXAMPLES.

"There the invalid lay, and turned toward the crowd a white, suffering face, which was yet

so heavenly that it comforted *whoever* looked at it. (*Whoever* is the subject of the verb *looked.* The object of the verb *comforted* is the noun clause, "Whoever looked at it.")

He offered his property to *whoever* would make the highest bid. (*Whoever* is the subject of the verb *would* make. The object of the preposition *to* is the noun clause, "Whoever would make the highest bid.")

INCORRECT.

I shall sell my property to *whomever* will pay me the most money.

He offered a prize to *whomever* would answer the greatest number of questions.

He offered his entire fortune to *whomsoever* would save his child.

CORRECT.

I shall sell my property to *whoever will pay* me the most money.

He offered a prize to *whoever would answer* the greatest number of questions.

He offered his entire fortune to *whosoever would save* his child.

INCORRECT.

I invited *whomever* had previously invited me.

I like *whomever likes* me.

CORRECT.

I invited *whoever had previously invited* me.

I like *whoever likes me.*

The same rule applies to the single forms *who* and *whom;* as, "I do not know *who* is invited;" "I do not know *whom* he has invited." (He has invited *whom.*)

Whoever and Whosoever.

Whoever and *whosoever,* with the objective forms *whomever* and *whomsoever,* are interchangeably used.

Who, Whom, or That, Omission of.

See *Relative Pronoun, Omission of.*

Whole lot.

Whole lot for *great deal* is not in accordance with good usage.

Whose and Of which.

See *Relative Pronouns.*

Why.

Why properly follows *reason* in such constructions as, "The reason *why* he returned was that he was ill." In this connection, note that *that* properly introduces the noun clause *that he was ill.*

Widow Woman.

Woman is superfluous after widow.

Will.

See *Shall* and *Will.*

Wisht.

Instead of "I *wisht* I were going," one properly says, "I *wish* I were going," or "I *wish that* I were going."

(For omission of *that,* see *That.*)

Within and In the time.

Within is nicely used when the sense is *during; within the limit* or duration of, *in* being nicely reserved to express the meaning *at the expiration* of; as, "He will be here *within* an

hour'' (*within the limit of*); ''He will be here in an hour'' (at the expiration of).

Without for Unless.

Without is improperly used for *unless*. Instead of saying, ''You cannot go *without* you take your umbrella,'' one properly says, ''You cannot go *unless* you take your umbrella,'' or ''You cannot go *without* your umbrella.''

Worse for More.

Instead of ''I dislike him *worse* than ever,'' one properly says, ''I dislike him *more* than ever,'' the use of *worse* in the sense of *more* being incorrect.

Wrong and Wrongly.

Wrong is an adverb as well as an adjective. For this reason, *wrong* is often interchangeably used with *wrongly;* as, ''The mail was sent off *wrong''* (or *wrongly*). When preceding the verb, *wrongly* is required; as ''The letter was *wrongly* addressed.''

Would better.

See *Had better.*

Would sooner or Would rather.

Sooner or *rather* are interchangeable in meaning when used to express ''readiness or willingness to do.'' See *Had better.*

Would seem.

See *Should* and *Would.*

Would like.

In the first person, ''*would* like'' or ''*would* have liked'' is always incorrect. One properly says, ''I *should* like'' or ''I *should* have liked.''

In the second and the third person, *would* is correct; thus: "You (he, she, they) *would* like" or "*would* have liked."

See *Should* and *Would.*

Wouldn't want.

Wouldn't want is always incorrect in the first person, "I *shouldn't* want" being the correct form. In the second and the third person *wouldn't* is required.

Write you.

In business usage, the preposition *to* may be omitted, its presence being understood.

Y.

Yearly and Annually.

See *Annual.*

Yet and As yet.

Yet and *as yet* are interchangeably used; as, "His letter has not *yet* (or *as yet*) been received."

You are mistaken.

See *I am not mistaken.*

You was.

"You *was*" is always incorrect, *were* being required for both the singular and the plural number of the second person (*you.*)

You for One.

See *One.*

Your Going.

See *My going.*

You're Not.

See *Contractions.*

CONCORD OF AUXILIARY AND PRINCIPAL VERB.*

The rule that governs the concord of auxiliary and principal verbs is as follows: When two or more auxiliary verbs are used with reference to one principal verb, the auxiliaries and the principal verb must be in concord; thus:

I *have been,* and I *shall* always *be,* delighted to see you whenever you come.

If the auxiliary and the principal verb cannot agree, a second principal verb must be introduced; thus: "I *have regretted,* and I *shall* always *regret* that I did not go abroad with you;" not "I *have,* and *shall* always regret that I did not go abroad with you."

Sometimes the principal verb (understood) is incorrectly made to refer to an infinitive with which it is not in accord; thus: "I advise others *to take* the same course that I *have taken;*" not "I advise others *to take* the same course that I *have.*"

In the following there is a lack of concord of tenses in the incorrect form: "I think that he *has seen* him, and did what I requested him to do." This should be, "I think that he *has seen him,* and *has done* what I requested him to do," or "I think that he *has seen* him and *that he did* what I requested him to do."

CONCORD OF THE INFINITIVE WITH THE PRINCIPAL VERB.*

(*a*) When the infinitive refers to a time either *coincident* with or after that of the prin-

* CORRECT ENGLISH: A COMPLETE GRAMMAR, p. 198.

cipal verb, the *present infinitive* is used; thus:

In the following examples the time of the infinitive is either *coincident* with, or after that of the principal verb.

1. I mean *to write.*
   I intend *to go.*
   I am happy *to meet* you.
2. I meant *to write, not* I meant *to have written.*

I intended *to go, not* I intended to have gone.

I hoped *to see* her, *not* I hoped *to have seen her.*

It was their duty to *tell* him, *not* It was their duty *to have* told him.

Note.—Instead of saying, "I should have liked *to have gone,*" or "I should like *to have gone,*" one should say, "I should have liked *to go,*" for the liking or the desire to go would precede the *going.*

THE PERFECT INFINITIVE.

(*b*) When the infinitive refers to a time *prior* to that of the principal verb, the perfect *infinitive is used;* thus:

I am happy *to have met* you.

Many verbs in the infinitive mode have a passive as well as an active voice.

I was glad *to be remembered.*

I am glad *to have been remembered.*

CONCORD OF VERB WITH ANTECEDENT OF RELATIVE PRONOUN.*

A verb that has for a subject a relative pronoun, is singular or plural according as the antecedent of the relative pronoun is singular

*CORRECT ENGLISH: A COMPLETE GRAMMAR.

or plural; thus: "This is one of the most interesting *books* that *have* appeared this year." The plural form *have* is correct, for the reason that the antecedent *books* of the relative pronoun *that* is plural.

In the sentence, "This is the only *one* of the books that *is* worth reading," it is the pronoun *one,* and not the noun *books,* that is the antecedent of the relative pronoun *that.*

When the relative pronoun has for its antecedent a personal pronoun, caution is necessary in order that the verb may be of either the first, the second, or the third person, as required. In other words, the verb that has for its subject a relative pronoun must agree with the antecedent of that relative in person as well as in number; thus:

It is *I* who *am* in the wrong.

It is *you* who *are* in the wrong.

It is *he* (or she) who *is* in the wrong.

It is *we* (or they) who *are* in the wrong.

"It is *I,* your teacher, who *am* in the wrong."

In the last sentence, note that even if the appositional noun were regarded as the antecedent of the relative pronoun, the person and the number would be the same, because of the agreement of the appositional noun with its antecedent in both person and number.

Note.—In the case of compound antecedents, the verb agrees in person and number with the antecedent that immediately precedes the relative; thus:

It is either he or *I* that *am* to blame.

It is either he or your *friends* that *are* in the wrong.

It is either you or *I* that *am* to blame.

(When possible, the plural noun or pronoun should immediately precede the relative.)

CONCORD OF SUBJECT AND VERB.*

A verb is singular or plural according as its subject is singular or plural, for the meaning, and not the form of the subject, determines whether it shall be regarded as singular or plural.

As a rule, a compound subject is regarded as plural, and, hence, a plural verb is required; as, "My father and mother *are* there." There are cases, however, when the compound subject is regarded as singular, and, hence, a singular verb is required.

The following are the rules that apply in special cases:

Rule 1.—When the subject nouns are singular and refer to the same person or thing, the compound subject is regarded as singular, and the singular verb is used.

A laggard in love and a dastard in war
Was to wed the fair Ellen of brave Lochinvar.

Rule 2.—When the subject consists of a single noun modified by two adjectives so as to mean two distinct things, it is plural, and requires a plural verb.

The *old* and the *new* Testament *constitute* the Bible. (*Testament* must be regarded as understood after old.)

Rule 3.—When the subject nouns are preceded by *each, every,* or *no,* the compound subject is singular.

*Correct English: A Complete Grammar.

Each girl and *each* boy (or each girl and boy) *was* requested to be present.

Every mother and *every* father (or every mother and father) *has* this feeling of responsibility.

No work and *no* money (or no work and money) *was* the possible fate that awaited him.

Rule 4.—When it is desired to make one of the subject nouns emphatic, the singular verb is required if the subject noun upon which the emphasis is laid, is singular; otherwise the plural verb is required.

Not riches, but *honor, makes* the man.

Riches, not honor, *were* what he sought.

When the negative expression *and not* or *not* precedes a subject noun, the verb is always singular or plural according as the first subject noun is singular or plural; as, The *son,* and not the parents, is in the wrong. The *parents,* and not the son, are in the wrong.

When, in a compound subject, the part following a singular noun may be regarded as a parenthetical expression or afterthought, the singular verb is required; as, "Henry, and Kate and Mary, too, likes candy."

Rule 5.—When in a compound subject, the subject nouns are separated by the predicate verb, the verb agrees with the first subject noun.

A heavenly *race demands* thy zeal, and an immortal crown.

The *leader* of the band *was* slain and all his men.

If the first noun is plural, the verb is plural; as, "The *leaders* of the band *were* slain, and all their men."

When the subject is separated from the verb, it is necessary to exercise caution, as the subject may appear plural when it is, in reality, *singular;* thus: A singular verb should always be used when a singular subject is separated from its verb by an adjective phrase introduced by the preposition *of.* See Any one....is.

Rule 6.—A singular verb should always be used when a singular subject is modified by a phrase introduced by the preposition *with.*

This, *with several other causes* which I shall not name, *was* the occasion of his downfall.

Sometimes the preposition *with* is used when, in reality, the sense is plural, requiring instead the conjunction *and.*

ORIGINAL.

The chief, *with all his attendants, was* captured.

IMPROVED.

The chief *and* all his attendants *were* captured.

If, however, *with* is used, the verb should always be singular; but, as indicated, inasmuch as in these sentences the sense is plural, it is better to use the conjunction *and,* as the use of the preposition *with* should be restricted to a subject with a singular meaning; thus: "The house, *with its attractive surroundings, was* very easily disposed of;" "Poverty, *with its thousand* ills, *was* his lot."

Rule 7.—A singular verb should always be used when a singular subject is followed by *as well as;* that is, when *as well as* is correctly used.

He *as well as* you *is* to blame.

The boy *as well as* his sister *deserves* praise.

Sometimes the phrase *as well as* is used when, in reality, the sense requires the conjunction *and*.

ORIGINAL.

The horse *as well as* the driver *was* killed.

IMPROVED.

The horse *and* the driver *were* killed.

If, however, *as well as* is used, the verb should always be singular; but, as indicated, when *as well as* is used in order to make an illustrative comparison, it is always correctly used; otherwise, the conjunction *and* is required. Thus, one correctly says: "His curiosity *as well as* his anxiety, *was* excited," or "His curiosity *and* his anxiety *were* excited," but not "His curiosity *as well as* his anxiety *were* excited."

Rule 8. When the real subject follows the verb, and the sentence is introduced by a word that is used, for the time being, in place of the subject, the singular verb is often used even when the real subject is plural.

"Thine *is* the kingdom and the *power* and the *glory*."

"There *was racing* and *chasing* on Cannobie Lea."

"Such *was* the *intelligence*, the *gravity*, and the *self-command* of Cromwell's warriors."

While usage varies in cases of a compound subject, where the first noun that follows the verb is singular, it is always incorrect to use the singular verb when the noun that follows it is plural. Thus, while the construction,

"There *was racing* and *chasing* on Cannobie Lea," is sanctioned by some grammarians on the ground of ellipsis, constructions like the following are always incorrect: "There *was reasons* why he could not go."

In the following examples the subject noun that follows the verb introduced by *there* is plural; hence, the verb should be plural:

CORRECT.

"On the table there *were* neatly and handily arranged two long *pipes*." (Not *was*.)

"There *exist* sometimes only in germ and potentiality, sometimes more or less developed, the same *tendencies* and *passions* that have made our fellow-citizens of other classes what they are." (Not *exists*.)

The following constructions would be regarded as incorrect by those grammarians who do not sanction the use of the singular verb, even when the first subject noun of the compound is singular:

There *was* about her the *brilliancy* of courts and palaces, the *enchantment* of a love-story, the *suffering* of a victim of despotic power.—*Raub*.

Surely there *is* both *grandeur* and *eloquence* in his apostrophe to the atheists whom he knew abounded in Louis XIV's Court, etc.—*Raub*.

The following constructions are regarded as correct by those grammarians who sanction the use of the singular verb with a compound subject, when the first subject noun is singular:

There *was* a hen and (*there were*) *chickens* in the court.—*Bain and Maxwell*.

Upon this there *was* a fearful *cry* from heaven

and (*there were*) great claps of *thunder.—Bain and Maxwell.*

Rule 9.—When the compound subject is composed of phrases and clauses, the singular verb may be used, although some grammarians require the plural.

COMPOUND SUBJECT COMPOSED OF PHRASES.

To know her and to love her *is* joy to me.

"To recover Silesia, to humble the dynasty of Hohenzollern to the dust *was* the great object of Maria Theresa's life."

COMPOUND SUBJECT COMPOSED OF CLAUSES.

That the train is late and that we are thus delayed, *is annoying.*

That he is ambitious and that he will succeed, *is evident.*

In constructions of this kind, a pronoun is sometimes introduced, as in the following sentences: "To be the leader of the human race in the career of improvement, to found on the ruins of ancient intellectual dynasties a more prosperous empire, to be revered by the latest generations as the most illustrious among the benefactors of mankind, all *this was* within Bacon's reach."

In this connection note that the use of the plural verb in constructions of this kind is not general; hence, it would seem preferable, in many instances, to use the singular verb. The following are correct:

To do our duty to the public and to be just to ourselves is a difficult task (*are* difficult tasks).

That we should do our duty to the public and

that we should be just to ourselves *is* a self-evident truth (or *are* self-evident truths).

Rule 10.—When the compound subject consists of two or more singular nouns or pronouns connected by the conjunctions "either—or" or "neither—nor," it is singular, and, hence, the verb is singular.

Either John *or* his father *is* going.

Neither John *nor* his father *is* going

These conjunctions make the subject singular, for the reason that an assertion is made of only one of the subjects.

When the subjects differ in person, the verb agrees with the one that immediately precedes it.

Either he or I *am* going.

Neither he nor I *am* going.

When one of the subject nouns is plural, the plural verb is required, and the plural noun must immediately precede the verb.

Either James or his *sisters have* the book.

Neither James nor his *sisters have* the book.

In the case of pronouns, the same rule does not always obtain; thus, while the plural pronoun would immediately precede the verb in the sentence, "Either he or *they are* going," the singular pronoun would precede the verb in the sentence, "Either you or *I am* going," or "Either you or *he is* going." The reason for this is that precedence should be given to the position of *you*.

See *Concord of the relative pronoun and the verb.*

Rule 11.—When the noun is plural in form but singular in meaning, it takes a singular verb.

His whereabouts *is* unknown, or His whereabouts *has* not been discovered.

Note.—*Whereabouts* means simply *location.*

Five hundred dollars was the amount spent.

Note.—Five hundred dollars is thought of as an entity.

Some words have both a singular and a plural form; thus: *pair, dozen.* When preceded by a numeral, these words, whether singular or plural in meaning, take the singular form; but when not preceded by a numeral, they take the plural form.

Of is frequently omitted; thus, "a dozen eggs," instead of "a dozen *of* eggs;" "two dozen eggs," instead of "two dozen *of* eggs;" but not "there are several dozen eggs," instead of "there are several dozens *of* eggs."

SINGULAR IN FORM AND SINGULAR IN MEANING.

This *is* a new *pair* of gloves.

There *is* a *dozen* of eggs in the basket.

SINGULAR IN FORM AND PLURAL IN MEANING.

There *are* two *pair* of gloves in the box.

There *are* two *dozen* of eggs in the basket.

PLURAL IN FORM AND MEANING.

There *are* several *pairs* of gloves in the box.

There *are* several *dozens* of eggs in the basket.

Other words that admit of a plural form when not preceded by a numeral are: *brace, braces; head, heads; score, scores; hundred, hundreds;* etc.; thus, "*two brace* of ducks," but "several *braces,*" etc.

The following nouns, although plural in form, are regarded as singular, and so are followed by singular verbs; *amends, news, summons,*

gallows, politics, physics, optics, mathematics. Summons has a plural form, *summonses.*

The following nouns may be used either in the singular or in the plural: *means, odds, pains, wages.*

SINGULAR.

This means (or *these* means) *was* (or *were*) used to influence him.

No pains *is* (or *are*) taken to make it pleasant.

The odds *is* (or *are*) in his favor.

The wages of sin *is* death.

His wages *are* small.

Some nouns have the same form for both the singular and the plural; as, *deer, sheep, trout, salmon.*

Rule 12.—When the noun is plural in form and plural in meaning it takes a plural verb.

The following nouns are plural in both form and meaning and so are followed by plural verbs: *alms, archives, ashes, bellows, billiards, bitters, breeches, cattle, clothes, compasses, contents, goods, manners, matins, measles, morals, nuptials, nippers, pincers, pantaloons, riches, scissors, tidings, tongs, tweezers, trousers, shears, scales.*

Note.—*Contents* is plural in form and plural in meaning; as, "The *contents* of your letter *surprise* me." Occasionally, however, where the context favors a singular construction, the singular verb is used; as, "The *contents* of the *jug is* vinegar." *Tidings,* likewise, is construed as plural, but is occasionally found in literature in the singular. The present usage, however, is in favor of the plural; as, "*These tidings are alarming.*"

SHALL AND WILL: HOW TO USE THEM.*

Declarative Form.

SIMPLE FUTURITY, PROMISE, DETERMINATION.

Shall in the first person and *will* in the second and the third, are used to express simple *futurity; will* in the first person and *shall* in the second and third, are used to express either *promise* or *determination,* as the case may require.

Simple Futurity.		Promise or Determination.	
I shall,	We shall,	I will,	We will,
You will,	You will,	You shall,	You shall,
He will,	They will.	He shall,	They shall.

When it is correct to say "I shall," it is correct to say "You will" or "He will." When it is correct to say "I will," it is correct to say "You shall" or "He shall." The same rule obtains in the plural number.

Simple Futurity.

I *shall* go abroad in the spring.

Meaning.—I am going abroad in the spring.

I understand that you *will* go abroad in the spring.

Meaning.—I understand that you are going abroad in the spring.

He *will* go abroad in the spring.

Meaning.—He is going abroad in the spring.

Promise or Determination.

I *will* go abroad in the spring.

Meaning.—I promise to go, or I am determined to go.

You *shall* go abroad in the spring.

Meaning.—I promise that you shall go, or I am determined that you shall go.

He *shall* go abroad in the spring.

Meaning.—I promise that he shall go, or I am determined that he shall go.

In speaking, the inflection of the voice indicates whether promise or determination is expressed. When

*From CORRECT ENGLISH: A COMPLETE GRAMMAR.

the wishes of the speaker and those of the persons spoken to (or of) are the same, promise is expressed by "I will," "You shall," "He shall;" otherwise, determination is expressed.

EXAMPLES.

In the following sentences, the wishes of the speaker and the person spoken to (or of) are the same:

I *will* go if you wish me to go. (Promise.)

You *shall* go if you wish to go. (Promise.)

He *shall* go if he wishes to go. (Promise.)

In the following sentences, the wishes of the speaker and those of the person spoken to (or of) are not the same:

I *will* go in spite of your protestations. (Determination.)

You *shall* go in spite of your protestations. (Determination.)

He *shall* go in spite of his protestations. (Determination.)

Interrogative Form.

The auxiliary that is required in the answer, must be used in the question, except when the person spoken to does not control the speaker.

SHALL.

(Person spoken to decides.)

Singular.		Plural.	
Questions.	Answers.	Questions.	Answers.
Shall you go?	I shall go.	Shall you go?	We shall go.
Shall he go?	He shall go.	Shall they go?	They shall go.

WILL.

(Each one does as he pleases.)

Singular.		Plural.	
Questions.	Answers.	Questions.	Answers.
Will you go?	I will go.	Will you go?	We will go.
Will he go?	He will go.	Will they go?	They will go.

The form "will I" must never be used in asking a question of another, for the reason that no one can answer the question but the person who asks it. Sometimes, in cases where the person spoken to repeats the question, the form "will I" is used, thus, the question is asked "Will I go?" The person spoken to repeats the auxiliary and says "Will I go? Certainly, I will go," willingness being expressed by his answer.

When the person spoken to does not control the speaker, the auxiliary that is used in the question is not necessarily used in the answer; thus: in the sentence, "*Shall* I assist you?" the person spoken to may answer, "Yes; if you will, please;" while in the sentence, "*Shall* I never gain your consent?" the person spoken to may answer, "No; you *shall* not."

Condition Beyond the Control of the Will.

Shall in the first person, and *will* in the second and the third, are the correct auxiliaries to use in expressing a condition beyond the control of the will.

EXAMPLES.

Singular.

If I eat this, I *shall* be ill.
If you eat this, you *will* be ill.
If he eats this, he *will* be ill.

Plural.

If we eat this, we *shall* be ill.
If you eat this, you *will* be ill.
If they eat this, they *will* be ill.

(a) A person is happy, delighted, pleased, disappointed, obliged, etc., because he cannot help it. Note that *will* in the first person, and *shall* in the second and third persons, express either promise or determination; hence, for a person to say, "I *will* be ill," is to promise or express determination to be ill. This rule applies to all words that express a condition beyond the control of the will.

FURTHER EXAMPLES.

I *shall* be obliged to go. Not, I *will* be obliged to go.
I *shall* be disappointed if he does not come. Not, I *will* be disappointed if he does not come.
I *shall* be happy to see you at any time. Not, I *will* be happy to see you at any time.
I know that I *shall* like her. Not, I know that I *will* like her.
I *shall* be very glad to see her. Not, I *will* be very glad to see her.

Sentences in which a Supposition is Made.

If I take this medicine, I *shall* recover. Not, If I take this medicine, I *will* recover.
If I go out in the rain without an umbrella, I *shall* ruin my clothes. Not, If I go out in the rain without an umbrella, I *will* ruin my clothes.
If I do not make the best of my opportunities, I *shall* not succeed. Not, If I do not make the best of my opportunities, I *will* not succeed.

Direct and Indirect Quotation.

A *direct quotation* is one in which the exact language is reported. An *indirect quotation* is one in which the form of expression is slightly altered.

Direct Quotation.

He said, "I *will* be there without fail. (Promise.)
He says, "I *will* go." (Promise.)

Indirect Quotation.

He said that he *would* be there without fail. (Promise.)
He says that he *will* go. (Promise.)

Direct Quotation.

(a) In direct quotation, the auxiliaries *shall* and *will* are used the same as in the DECLARATIVE forms.
(b) When the quotation is direct, the words quoted are preceded by a comma, and are placed within quota-

tion marks. When the quotation is indirect, neither the comma nor the quotation marks are used.

(c) When the quotation is direct, the tenses of the verbs do not necessarily accord with each other. When the quotation is indirect, the tenses of the verbs do accord with each other, unless a universal truth is stated.

In the following sentences, the statements express facts pertaining only to the individual:

Correct.

She *says* that she *will* go. (Promise or willingness is expressed.)

He *said* that he *would* go.

In the following sentences, the statements express universal truths:

He *maintained* that the earth *moves.*

He *said* that only the good *are* happy.

Indirect Quotation.

(d) In indirect quotations, when the subjects do not refer to the same person, the auxiliaries are used the same way as in the DECLARATIVE form; where the subjects refer to the same person, *shall* is used in all the persons to express simple futurity, and *will* is used in all the persons, to express promise or determination.

EXAMPLES.

Subject nouns do not refer to the same person. (Auxiliaries are used the same as in the DECLARATIVE form.)

The teacher says that I *shall* succeed. (Futurity.)

The teacher says that the pupils *will* succeed. (Futurity.)

The teacher says that the pupils *shall* have a holiday. (Promise.)

Subject nouns refer to the same person. *(Shall* is used to express futurity, and *will,* to express promise or determination, in all three persons.)

The teacher says that he *shall* dismiss the pupils. (Futurity.)

The teacher says that he *will* give the pupils a vacation. (Promise.)

You say that you *shall* go abroad. (Futurity.)

You say that you *will assist* me. (Promise.)

Correct.

He asked me whether I would go. (Indirect quotation.)

"He asked, "will you go?" (Direct quotation.)

Note that the mixture of direct and indirect quotation is always incorrect; as, "He asked me would I go."

Doubtful Futurity.

In expressing *simple futurity, shall* is used in the first person, and *will* in the second and the third; as, "I shall go," you will go," "He will go." In expressing *doubtful futurity* as in the sentence, "I think that I shall go," the rule is the same as that in indirect quotation, and is as follows:

(a) In expressing futurity, when the subjects do not refer to the same person, the auxiliaries are used as in the DECLARATIVE form; when the subjects refer to the same person, *shall* is used throughout the construction.

In the following sentences, the subjects do not refer to the same person, and, hence, the auxiliaries are used the same as in independent constructions:

EXAMPLES.

Simple Futurity. (Indirect Quotation.)

The teacher *says* that I *shall* succeed.

The teacher *says* that you *will* succeed.

The teacher *says* that the pupils *will* succeed.

Doubtful Futurity.

The teacher *thinks* that I shall succeed.

The teacher *thinks* that you *will* succeed.

The teacher *thinks* that the pupils *will* succeed.

In the following sentences, the subjects refer to the same person, and, hence, *shall* is used throughout the constructions:

Simple Futurity.

The teacher *says* that he *shall* dismiss the pupils.
He *says* that he *shall* go abroad.

Doubtful Futurity.

The teacher *thinks* that he *shall* dismiss the pupils.
He *thinks* that he *shall* go abroad.

Direct Quotation, Indirect Quotation and Doubtful Futurity in Interrogative Sentences.

In *interrogative* sentences, the same general rule that applies to the *declarative* form constructions, applies also to direct and indirect quotation and to doubtful futurity.

(a) The auxiliary that is required in the answer, must be used in the question, when the person spoken to decides the question or controls the speaker.

DIRECT QUOTATION.

Did he say, "*Shall* I go"?
Did he say, "*Shall* you go"?
Did he say "*Shall* he go"?
Did you say, "*Shall* I go"?
Did he say, "*Will* you go"?
Did you say, "*Will* you go"?

INDIRECT QUOTATION AND DOUBTFUL FUTURITY.

The rules for interrogative constructions are the same as in declarative sentences.

(b) In indirect quotation, when the subjects do not refer to the same person, the auxiliaries are used the same as the DECLARATIVE form; when the subjects refer to the same speaker, *shall* is used in all the persons to express simple futurity, and *will* is used in all the persons to express promise or determination.

Thus: "The teacher says (or thinks) that the pupils *will* succeed," becomes "Does the teacher say (or think) that the pupils *will* succeed?" "The teacher says (or thinks) that he *shall* dismiss the pupils," becomes, "Does

the teacher say (or think) that he *shall* dismiss the pupils?"

Contingent Futurity.

In subordinate clauses after *if, though, although, when, until,* etc., *shall* (or *should)* is used in all three persons unless the subject is thought of as wishing or consenting, when *will* (or *would)* is correct.

EXAMPLES.

Futurity.

If I *shall* find that I am in the wrong, I shall apologize.

If it *shall* appear that the prisoner is guilty, he will surely be punished.

Even though the prisoner *shall* be found guilty, he will not be punished.

Willingness.

If he *will* go, I will go too.

If you *will* attend to this matter I will pay you for the work.

Although we *will* consent to his going, we will not give him permission to remain away for an indefinite period.

In connection with the use of *shall,* in the foregoing sentences, to express *contingent* futurity, note that properly speaking, the auxiliary *should,* and not the auxiliary *shall,* is required. The use of *will,* however, in the second and third persons is required when the wishes of the person referred to are considered.

The following sentences are in conformity with the modern usage of the language:

If he *comes,* I *shall* go. (Futurity.)

If he *comes,* I *will* go. (Willingness.)

If he *will* come (will be willing), I *shall* go. (Futurity.)

If he *should* (or were to) come, I *should* go. (Futurity.)

If he *should* come I *would* go. (Willingness.)

The employment of *shall,* however, is in accordance

with the usage of the language when the subject is not thought of as wishing or consenting.

Request, Desire, Command.

After request or desire, the auxiliary *will* is used when the assertion is direct and personal; *shall* when the assertion is indirect and impersonal.

The expression is indirect and impersonal when it is introduced by "it;" as, "It is requested;" "It was requested," etc.

EXAMPLES.

In the following sentences, the assertion is direct and personal; hence, "will" is required:

I request that you *will* not leave the room.

I desire that you *will* give the matter immediate attention.

In the following sentences the assertion is indirect and impersonal; hence, "shall" be required:

It is requested that no person *shall* leave the room.

It is desired that every one *shall* be present.

In assertions where the third person is spoken of, "will" is the correct auxiliary, if the construction is not introduced by "it."

According to these instructions, the following sentences are correct:

I request that each one present *will* attend the meeting.

I desire that each one *will* give the matter immediate attention.

After command, the auxiliary "shall" is always required.

EXAMPLES.

I command that you *shall* leave the room.

I command that no one *shall* leave his seat.

SHOULD AND WOULD:. HOW TO USE THEM.*

Declarative Form.

Should and *would* follow, in the main, the rules that govern *shall* and *will,* with some peculiar uses of their

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own. *When there is no controlling force from without,* "I should," "You would," "He would," "We should," "You would," "They would," are used in the same way that "shall" and "will" are used. (See rule under *Shall and Will, Declarative Form.*)

SHALL AND WILL.

(Simple Future.)

If he invites me, I *shall* go.
If he invites you, I suppose that you *will* go.
If he invites her, I suppose that she *will* go.

SHOULD AND WOULD.

(Contingent Future.)

If he were to invite me, I *should* go.
If he were to invite you, I suppose that you *would* go.
If he were to invite her, I suppose that she *would* go.

(*b*) *Should* and *would* are called the past tense forms of *shall* and *will;* this is because they were originally past in meaning, but they are now more especially used to express *contingency;* that is, what one should or would have done or what one should or would do under special conditions. Past tense uses of these auxiliaries, however, may be seen in such expressions as "He *would* read for hours at a time." In the foregoing sentences, contingency is expressed.

In addition to expressing contingency, *should* and *would* have special uses. Thus: *Should* in the first person expresses plan, a condition beyond the control of the will, and in all three persons, propriety; *would* in the first person expresses resolution, and in all three persons willingness or custom.

EXAMPLES.

Should.

If I were going abroad, I *should* study French. (Plan.)

If I were to walk so far, I *should* become fatigued.

(Condition beyond control of the will.)

I know that I *should* practice several hours each day. (Propriety.)

You *should* not study so many hours a day. (Propriety.)

He *should* not walk so far. (Propriety.)

Would.

I *would* never consent. (Resolution.)

I *would* do the work for you if I could. (Willingness.)

You *would* do this for me I know, and so *would* he. (Willingness.)

When I was a child, I *would* gaze for hours at the clouds. (Custom.)

When you were a child, you *would* read for hours at a time. (Custom.)

SHOULD AND OUGHT.—The specific use of *should* is to express *propriety* or *expediency,* but it is often loosely used in a stronger sense to express duty. Thus, in strict usage, we should say, "Children ought to obey their parents." (Moral obligation.) "Children *should* be seen and not heard." (Propriety.)

Interrogative Form.

The auxiliary that is required in the answer, must be used in the question, except when the person spoken to does not control the speaker.

SHOULD.

(Person spoken to decides.)

Singular.

Questions.	Answers.
Should you go?	I should go.
Should he go?	He should go.

Plural.

Questions.	Answers.
Should you go?	We should go.
Should they go?	They should go.

WOULD.

(Each one does as he pleases.)

Singular.

Questions.	Answers.
Would you go?	I would go.
Would he go?	He would go.

Plural.

Questions.	Answers.
Would you go?	We would go.
Would they go?	They would go.

(*a*) The question "would I" like "will I," can be answered only by the speaker; hence, these forms should never be used when addressing the person spoken to.

(*b*) As has been indicated, *should* in the first person expresses plan, a condition beyond the control of the will, and in all three persons duty (propriety); while *would* in the first person expresses resolution, and in all three persons, willingness or custom.

In applying the rule given above, it will be readily seen that if *should* is required in the answer, it must be used in the question; and likewise, if *would* is required in the answer, it must be used in the question; that is, when the person spoken to decides the question or controls the speaker.

Questions.

Should you go if you were invited?
Should you like to go?
Would he like to go?
Would they enjoy the concert?
Would he sit and read for hours at a time?
Would you forgive him?

Answers.

I *should.* (Contingent futurity.)
I *should.* (Condition beyond the control of the will.)
He *would.* (Condition beyond the control of the will.)

They *would.* (Condition beyond the control of the will.)

He *would.* (Custom.)

I *would* never forgive him. (Resolution.)

(*c*) When the person spoken to does not control the speaker, the auxiliary that is used in the question is not necessarily used in the answer; thus: in the sentence, "*Should* I like her if I were to meet her?" The person spoken to may answer, "Yes; you *would.*" While in the sentence, "*Should* I assist her?" (meaning is it my duty to assist her) the person spoken to may answer, "Yes; you *should.*"

Condition Beyond the Control of the Will.

Should in the first person, and *would* in the second and the third, are the correct auxiliaries to use *in expressing a condition beyond the control of the will.*

EXAMPLES.

Singular.

If I were to eat this, I *should* be ill.
If you were to eat this, you *would* be ill.
If he were to eat this, he *would* be ill.

Plural.

If we were to eat this, we *should* be ill.
If you were to eat this, you *would* be ill.
If they were to eat this, they *would* be ill.

(*a*) *Would* in the first person expresses willingness or resolution; hence, for a person to say "I would be ill" is to express a willingness or a resolution to be ill.

FURTHER EXAMPLES.

In the following sentences, the supposition is implied, but not expressed:

Incorrect.

I *would* be happy to see you at any time.
I *would* be happy to meet her.

I *would* be very much obliged to you.
I know that I *would* like her.

Correct.

I *should* be happy to see you at any time.
I *should* be happy to meet her.
I *should* be very much obliged to you.
I know that I *should* like her.

In the sentences given above, there is an ellipsis of the suppositional clause; thus: "I should be happy to see you" (if you were to come); "I should be happy to meet her" (if she were to call), etc. In the following sentences, the supposition is expressed:

Incorrect.

If I were to take this medicine, I *would* recover.
If I were to go out in the rain without an umbrella, I *would* ruin my clothes.
If I did not make the best of my opportunities, I *would* not succeed.
I *would* be obliged to go if he were to come.

Correct.

If I were to take this medicine, I *should* recover.
If I were to go out in the rain without an umbrella, I *should* ruin my clothes.
If I did not make the best of my opportunities, I *should* not succeed.
I *should* be obliged to go if he were to come.

Direct and Indirect Quotations.

In *direct quotation,* the auxiliaries "should" and "would" are used the same as in the *declarative* form.

DIRECT QUOTATION.

He said, "I *should* go if I were able." (Simple subjunctive futurity.)
He said, "If I were to go abroad I *should* study French." (Plan.)
He said, "If I were to eat this, I *should* be ill." (Condition beyond the control of the will.)

He said, "I *would* not go under any circumstances." (Determination.)

He said, "When I was a child I *would* study for several hours at a time." (Custom.)

He said, "I know that I *should* learn my lessons." (Duty or propriety.)

INDIRECT QUOTATION.

In indirect quotation, when the subjects do not refer to the same person the auxiliaries are used the same as in *declarative* constructions; when the subjects refer to the same person, *should* is used in all three persons to express simple contingent futurity, plan, propriety, a condition beyond the control of the will as the case may be, and "would" is used in all three persons to express willingness, promise or determination.

Subject nouns do not refer to the same person.

The teacher said that I *should* succeed. (Contingent futurity.)

The teacher said that the pupils *would* succeed. (Contingent futurity.)

The teacher said that the pupils *should* learn their lessons. (Propriety.)

The teacher said that sometimes the pupils *would* study for several hours at a time. (Custom.)

The teacher said that if the pupils were to study too hard, they *would* be ill. (Condition beyond the control of the will.)

The teacher said that if I were to eat this, I *should* be ill. (Condition beyond the control of the will.)

Subject nouns refer to the same person.

The teacher said that he *should* dismiss the class. (Contingent futurity.)

The teacher said that he *would* give the pupils a vacation. (Promise.)

He said that when he was a child he *would* watch the clouds for hours at a time. (Custom.)

The teacher said that if he were to eat this he *should* be ill. (Condition beyond the control of the will.)

I said that if I were to go abroad, I *should* study French. (Plan.)

He said that if he were to go abroad, he *should* study French. (Plan.)

You said that you *would* not go under any circumstances. (Determination.)

Doubtful Futurity.

In doubtful futurity, *should* and *would* are used the same as in direct and indirect quotation. Again, when past time is expressed, the verbs in both the principal and the subordinate clause must be in accordance with each other, as, "I *thought* that I *should* go;" "He *thought* that he *should* go;" when, however, it *is* the intention of the speaker to express in present time what he would do under certain conditions, the tenses do not accord. Thus: in the sentence, "I *thought* that I *should* go," past time is expressed in both the principal and the subordinate clause; while in the sentence, "I *think* that I *should* go if he would go with me," the speaker expresses in present time what he would do in the future under the condition named.

Past.

I *thought* that I *should* be able to see him, but I found that he had gone.

He *thought* that he *should* be able to go, but he found that he could not leave his office.

I *thought* that I *should* like to go.

He *thought* that he *should* like to go.

I *thought* that I *should* be ill.

Present.

I *think* that I *should* be able to see him if I were to call.

He *thinks* that he *should* be able to go if he were to be invited.

I *think* that I *should* like to go.

He *thinks* that he *should* like to go.

I *think* that I *should* be ill.

Note that in all such constructions as, "I think that I should like to go," there is a clause unexpressed, but un-

derstood; thus: "I *think* that I *should* like to go, if," etc.

Direct Quotation, Indirect Quotation and Doubtful Futurity in Interrogative Sentences.

In direct and indirect quotation and doubtful futurity, the same rule that applies to the *declarative* form, applies to interrogative sentences.

DIRECT QUOTATION.

Did he say, "*Should* I go"?
Did he say, "*Should* the pupil go"?
Did you say, "*Should* I go"?
Did you say, "*Should* the pupil go"?
Did he say, "*Would* he go"?
Did you say, "*Would* you go"?

Note that the question "*Should* I go," would be answered "You *should* (or *should* not) go;" "*Should* the pupil go?" would be answered, "The pupil *should* (or *should* not) go;" "*Would* he go?" would be answered, "He *would* (or *would* not) go."

INDIRECT QUOTATION AND DOUBTFUL FUTURITY.

The rules are the same as in declarative sentences.

Subjects do not Refer to the Same Person.

Questions.

Did the teacher say (or think) that the pupils *should* prepare their lessons at home? (Propriety.)

Did the teacher say (or think) that if the pupils were to study hard, they *would* become ill? (Condition beyond the control of the will.)

Did the teacher say (or think) that the pupils *would* study harder if they had more time? (Contingent futurity.)

Answers.

The teacher said (or thought) that the pupils *should* prepare their lessons at home. (Propriety.)

The teacher said (or thought) that, if the pupils were

to study hard, they *would* become ill. (Condition beyond the control of the will.)

The teacher said (or thought) that the pupils *would* study harder if they had more time. (Contingent futurity.)

Subjects Refer to the Same Person.

Questions.

Did the teacher say (or think) that he *should* assist his pupils as much as possible. (Propriety.)

Did the teacher say (or think) that he *should* like to assist his pupils? (Condition beyond the control of the will.)

Did the teacher say (or think) that he *should* go abroad if he could leave his pupils. (Contingent futurity.)

The teacher said (or thought) that he *should* assist his pupils as much as possible. (Propriety.)

The teacher said (or thought) that he *should* like to assist his pupils. (Condition beyond the control of the will.)

The teacher said (or thought) that he *should* go abroad if he could leave his pupils. (Contingent futurity.)

(*a*) In the first person, "should" or "shall" is always required irrespective of the auxiliary that may be used in the answer; thus:

Questions.

Should I obey his wishes? (Propriety.)

Should I be ill if I were to eat this? (Condition beyond the control of the will.)

Should I become fatigued if I were to go? (Condition beyond the control of the will.)

Did you say (or think) that I *should* be able to go? (Contingent futurity.)

Did you say (or think) that I *should* assist my parents? (Propriety.)

Did you say (or think) that I *should* like him? (Condition beyond the control of the will.)

Idiomatic Uses.

"HAD" FOR "SHOULD (OR WOULD) HAVE."

(*a*) In idiomatic use, the indicative form is often used when the subjunctive might be expected.

Indicative (Idiomatic).

I *had* given up in despair, *had* I not received assistance.

Many deeds, which *had* otherwise appeared noble, were shown to be ignoble.

Subjunctive.

I *should* have despaired if I had not received assistance.

Many deeds, which *would* otherwise have appeared noble, were shown to be ignoble.

2. "Would" in the expression of a wish.

(*b*) In poetry (and in Anglo-Saxon), "would" is sometimes used in the sense of wish.

WOULD.

Would that I had gone.

Would that I had never seen this day.

WISH.

I *wish* that I had gone.

I *wish* that I had never seen this day.

3. Omission of "if."

(*c*) "If," followed immediately by a subject noun or pronoun, is frequently omitted.

Futurity.

If I *should* (were to) go to the city, I should call on him.

Even if you *should* (or were to) fail, you would not become discouraged.

If he *should* (or were to) call in my absence, tell him to call to-morrow.

Should I like her if I knew her? (Condition beyond the control of the will.)

Should I regret this? (Condition beyond the control of the will.)

Answers.

You *should.*

You *would* be ill, etc.

You *would,* etc.

I said (or thought) that you *would* be able to go.

I said (or thought) that you *should* assist them.

I said (or thought) that you *would* like him.

You *would,* etc.

You *would* not.

(*b*) In indirect quotation or in doubtful futurity the same rules obtain.

Do you think that I *should* like it?

I think that you *would.*

(*c*) The same rules apply to "shall" in the first person.

(*d*) In subordinate clauses after *if, though, although, when, until,* etc., *should* (like *shall*) is used in all three persons unless the subject is thought of as wishing or consenting, when *would* (or *will*) is correct.

It Should Seem; It Would Seem.

(*d*) "It should seem" and "It would seem" are often used for "It seems," or "I think" as being more modest forms of expression.

It *would seem* that he ought to go under the circumstances.

It *seems* (or I think) he ought to go under the circumstances.

(e) "It *should* seem" conveys a slightly different meaning from "it *would* seem." The former means, "It seems that it should be so," while the latter means merely "It seems." The expression "It *would* seem" is more commonly employed than is, "It *should* seem." There is a growing tendency, however, to use "It *would* seem" when "It *should* seem" is required.

Would Say or Should Say; Will Say or Shall Say.

"Would say" expresses contingent willingness or a wish to say; "should say" expresses contingent futurity, propriety, plan; "will say" expresses willingness, or determination, or promise in the immediate future to say; "shall say" expresses simple futurity.

Even if he *should* (or were to) fail, he would not become discouraged.

Willingness.

Although I *would* do this under the circumstances, I should not wish any remuneration.

If he *would* go, I should be willing to go too.

If you *would* kindly do this, I should esteem it a favor.

In the sentences given above, note that the auxiliary in the principal clause also takes the subjunctive form when it refers to what is future and contingent. The same rule obtains when the reference is to what is past, uncertain, or denied; as, "If I *had* known it, I *should* not have come." "If he *had* called, he *would* not have seen me."

Request, Desire, Command.

After request or desire, the auxiliary *would* (like *will*) is used when the assertion is direct and personal; *should* (or *shall*) when the assertion is indirect and impersonal.

See SHALL AND WILL.

Note.—The expression is indirect and impersonal when it is introduced by "it;" as, "It is requested;" "It was requested," etc.

Omission of If.

Were he in the wrong, he should be punished.
Had he *been* present, this would not have occurred.

Presence of If.

If he were in the wrong, he should be punished.
If he had been present.

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